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Contents

The School, a Laboratory for Democratic Living	Frank Meyer	51
The Power of the Federal Government	Harry C. Thomson	52
All Aboard the Overland Stage!	A. E. Martin	57
The International Forum	G. T. Renner and R. B. Nixon	65
The Commercial Relations Between Honduras and the United States, by Julian R. Cáceres		
How to Teach by the Unit Method	Ira Wilder	67
Revised Historical Viewpoints	Ralph B. Guinness	69
Columbus—Dreamer from Genoa	Sarah E. Tongue	70
Illustrated Section	Daniel C. Knowlton	71
War and Medicine	Richard Heindel	78
Motion Picture Department	Roy Wenger	81
News and Comment	Morris Wolf	83
Book Reviews and Book Notes	Richard Heindel	87
Current Publications Received		95

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The Social Studies

Continuing *The Historical Outlook*

VOLUME XXXII, NUMBER 2

FEBRUARY, 1941

The School, a Laboratory for Democratic Living

FRANK MEYER

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Teachers of the social studies must meet the challenge of the present national crisis with determination and action. The third division of the Educational Policies Commission's report on *Education and the Defense of American Democracy* calls for moral defense of our way of life. To build this defense is the obligation of every teacher, but most especially that of teachers of the social studies. That is their specialty, that is their prime reason for existence.

The Commission writes: "In the moral defense of democracy the first requirement is that the American people achieve a clear understanding of the nature of democracy and of the goal to which this democracy aspires. . . . Education can help to clarify the nature and goals of democracy. . . . It can provide opportunities to *live* democracy in the school."¹

Social studies teachers must advocate, sponsor, and assist in the administration of those aspects of school life in which democracy is practiced. They must be active supporters of all schemes of student participation in school control. They must know that their teaching becomes vital and experiential in the lives of their students only when, through student councils or other student-directed organizations, students practice the principles of our system of government. They must make the school a social studies laboratory, a workshop in democracy.

Democracy in the school is too often just a nice phrase. Many times one has heard schoolmen with a smile and a sneer dismiss the notion with: "Schools aren't and can't be democratic." Among themselves many ridicule the idea, agreeing that it all sounds excellent in literature, but is impractical in operation. One says: "I'm going to run my school without interference from anyone." He is honest. Another answers: "Well, let them have a student council. It can't do anything anyway. We'll see to that." He is neglecting an educational opportunity. A third states: "We tried the system, but had to abolish it. Our principal was kept busy vetoing the acts of the council." He confesses that the faculty failed in its duty of careful guidance. It is to counteract such situations that social studies teachers all over this country must rise and say: "We'll show you that boys and girls can live in a democratically controlled school. We'll prove that it is possible to develop a love for our way of life. Democracy can be as dramatic and as challenging as any totalitarian system. Let us use the whole school system as our laboratory and we'll build this moral defense."

This laboratory would be used not only to demonstrate the meaning of social studies concepts, but also to emotionalize our system, to add to student's knowledge a feeling for democracy. To know is not enough; to desire, to appreciate, to feel compelled to defend is necessary if our moral defense is to be strengthened. Living in a school in whose control they

¹ Educational Policies Commission, *Education and the Defense of American Democracy* (Washington: National Education Association, 1940), pp. 12-13.

share, brings students closer to the desired goal. By actively sharing in a functioning democracy boys and girls cannot help but become imbued with its philosophy or emotionally conditioned to its desirability.

Every teacher who tries to explain elections, constitutions, representative government, the merit system, court systems, or the responsibility of voters should welcome a laboratory for demonstrating these concepts. Let a few illustrations suffice to prove that the local school can be such a laboratory.

Elections, from registration to announcement of results, carried out for council and other school officers may be exact replicas of state or city elections. Essentials of a clean campaign can be taught and shown. Polls may be established, election boards chosen, and the voting procedure completed by all students. They enjoy the thing. They understand and appreciate their part in choosing their own officials. They catch the vision of Jefferson's faith in the average person.

Students may repeat your definition of a *constitution* a hundred times and never understand it. Let them have one of their own; let them study it and follow its provisions and they know its significance. They find that it is a pattern of behavior, an instrument to which they must give meaning. While it protects minorities and prevents chaos it often needs interpretation. Strict and loose construction are bound to be demonstrated by students themselves in developing their system. They may practice in their laboratory—the school—what they are taught in the classroom.

Representative government through a student council gives reality to another vague concept. It is easy for students to see how they make their own school rules through representatives. It is harder for them to understand Congress miles away. They know that they elect one of their fellows who is responsible to them. They considered his qualifications before they voted for him. They hear his report and instruct him on important issues. They know that he may be recalled or replaced at the next election. They are proud of the part they play and jealous of the

power they have in forming school policies. They understand and appreciate the essence of the republican system of government. They know that the responsibility and value of the average citizen finds its highest expression in a democracy.

The values of the merit system in government may be illustrated by setting up a civil service commission in the school.² This body may give tests and certify to an appointing officer candidates eligible for certain offices. One can hardly find a better method for teaching the differences between the spoils and merit systems. Students who formerly felt that favorite individuals always receive the best appointments, can now understand that it is possible to select on the basis of merit. Boys and girls living in a school community under such a system will not oppose its adoption in state or city.

A student court with real power, organized similarly to official courts, is always dramatic.³ Administration of justice in a democracy is so much more interesting than in a dictatorship; it is real, solemn, dignified. On comparing the democratic spirit of justice, the slow, careful search for truth, with totalitarian judicial efficiency, few students will desire the latter. Let us use this as another device to build in our youth an ideal worth defending.

Democracy is dramatic; it is an appeal to youth as well as to age. It is for social studies teachers to see that it functions in the schools through active student participation in school control. We need no super-state, no brown-shirts, no swastika, no national destiny, no flag-waving patriotism. We must uncover those qualities which we love, practice them at all times and in all spheres of school life, and reason will do the rest. Teachers are called upon to show their love for democracy by working it out in their own institutions. They may teach history or civics, but they must spend most of their time educating youth for life among a free people.

² Frank Meyer, "Merit System: A Civil Service Reform," *The Clearing House*, XV (September, 1940), 24-27.

³ Frank Meyer, "A Functioning Student Court," *School Activities*, XI (March, 1940), 277-278; 288.

The Power of the Federal Government

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Several thousand high school and college students will be debating this question between now and June, 1941. The official wording, "Resolved, that the power of the federal government should be increased," has been adopted for use among high schools from Maine to California. Teachers of social studies will be called upon to give advice to debaters,

and to act as critic judges. Many alert teachers will themselves use this topic for discussion in classes studying American government.

What is the background of this question? What reading materials can be readily used by students? How can this proposition be used for class discussion? What problems will these discussions center around?

The purpose of this article is to provide teachers and students with preliminary answers to these basic questions.

A few facts and statistics from our national history reveal what has happened to the federal government during the past 150 years, and why there is concern today about the trend toward centralized control. While Washington was President of the United States the national government employed about fifty clerks. Today there are approximately one million persons on the federal payroll, not including the army, navy, or relief workers. When Thomas Jefferson was Secretary of State he had a staff of two clerks; today there are almost five thousand employees in this department. During the century and a half of our national existence, the four departments of Washington's cabinet have increased to ten. In addition, there are over two hundred bureaus, agencies, and independent boards or commissions, such as the Interstate Commerce Commission, Federal Trade Commission, and the National Labor Relations Board. The 1940 census revealed these facts indirectly when it showed Washington, D.C., to be one of the fastest growing cities in the United States.

Increased population has obviously accounted for much of this growth, but by no means has it accounted for all. Federal administrative personnel has increased 700 times faster than has our population.¹ Government today—including federal, state, and local units—now employs approximately one-tenth of the gainfully employed persons in the United States, at an unusual cost of almost \$5,000,000,000. Other factors than population growth must be considered in explaining this situation.

Thomas Jefferson ran the federal government for eight years at a total cost of \$72,000,000. The eight years from 1932 to 1940 have seen the federal government spend approximately \$60,000,000,000, or 900 times as much as Jefferson spent. "That government is best which governs least," said Jefferson. This philosophy in recent years has been steadily pushed into the background as social and economic changes have demanded more and more governmental activity.

It should be made clear at the outset that the greatest part of this increase in government is due to increased federal activity, but that a large portion is also due to increased state and local activity. From 1913 to 1938, for example, federal expenditures increased twelvefold. During the same period, state and local expenditures increased threefold. Since federal expenditures have been primarily for national defense and unemployment relief, an analysis of such figures does not give a true picture of federal activity.

In order to understand the nature of, and reasons

for, increased federal activity, the student must consider the cumulative effect of far-reaching economic and social changes of the past century and a half. As J. T. Adams recently remarked: "New inventions have changed our economic and social life almost beyond recognition. The railroads, automobiles, nation-wide corporations, nation-wide interdependence in such matters as wages, hours and other relations of capital to labor, have seemed to many to necessitate the practical abolition of state lines and old ideas of state sovereignty."²

What are the changes and how are they related to this year's debate topic? This provides an excellent starting point for debaters in their study of this question. The following summary may prove of value in clarifying our thinking and organizing material:

1. A sparse agricultural population has become a predominantly industrial and commercial population to a large extent concentrated in urban centers.
2. Manufacturing has developed on a large scale and has come under the domination of giant corporate units in many industries.
3. The comparative isolation and self-sufficiency of families and communities in the eighteenth century has given way to interdependence and easy communication.
4. Nation-wide organization of labor unions has accompanied the growth of corporations.
5. Unemployment has become a problem demanding governmental action, as have the allied problems of low income, insecurity and poor housing.

These social and economic changes are responsible, directly and indirectly, for much of the increased activity of both federal and state governments in the past century. Let us look more closely at each of them in turn, for they form the basis for the demand that federal power be still further expanded.

In 1790, the population of the thirteen states was 4,000,000, scattered over an area of 892,000 square miles. This resulted in a population density of approximately four per square mile. Ninety per cent of the population was engaged in agriculture. Only ten per cent of the population lived in towns of more than 2,500 inhabitants. The largest city, Philadelphia, boasted a population of only 42,000.

Today this picture has changed radically. The population of the United States in 1940 is slightly more than 130,000,000, an increase of thirtyfold. The area of the forty-eight states now includes 3,000,000 square miles, resulting in a population density of forty per square mile.³ The population

² "What Shall Washington Control?" *Readers Digest*, September, 1938.

³ Debaters may find figures of this nature most readily in the *World Almanac*.

¹ L. Sullivan, *Dead Hand of Bureaucracy* (Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Company, 1940).

is no longer primarily agricultural, but is now largely engaged in manufacturing and commerce. In 1930, 56.2 per cent of the population lived in towns with more than 2,500 inhabitants. New York City now has a population greater than that of the entire nation in 1790. These facts have had a great deal to do with the expansion of the activities and powers of the federal government, but they are only part of the picture.

As population and territory have increased, manufacturing has grown with amazing rapidity, and has established corporate units which dwarf many states in power and influence. Before the War of 1812 the United States was a nation of farmers; today this nation is recognized as the industrial leader of the world. The following figures tell the story of the past century of industrial growth in terms of the value of manufactured goods produced:

1810—\$200,000,000.
1860—\$2,000,000,000.
1890—\$9,000,000,000.
1914—\$24,000,000,000.
1922—\$43,000,000,000.
1937—\$60,000,000,000.

The trend toward centralization of industrial control during this period of development has been marked, and has stimulated the concentration of governmental powers in Washington. Following the Civil War, great railroad companies spread their lines through the West and defied regulation by the states. The steel, oil, and meat-packing industries at the same time were organized on an enormous scale which transcended state boundaries and defied state regulation. Evil practices by these large-scale enterprises resulted in a demand for federal regulation. The creation of the Interstate Commerce Commission in 1887 and the passage of the Sherman Anti-Trust Act in 1890 were steps in the direction of increased national control over nationally organized industry. Gardiner Means has summed up the situation in these words:

The basic reason for the trend toward centralization has been the industrial revolution. The movement of industrial, economic, and social organization has been constantly toward larger units, some even international. The integration of governmental power is merely a necessary concomitant of these economic and social changes. As the entire nation is psychologically and socially knit into a single community by modern techniques of communication, local political and administrative units appear increasingly ineffective.⁴

It is easy to overemphasize the importance of large

corporations, however. Although American economic life is to a large extent controlled by nationwide corporations, it has not yet reached the point of complete domination by big business units. The field of agriculture has not yet been invaded by the corporation to any appreciable extent, as only six per cent of the total production is in corporate hands. As a result of agriculture's lack of national organization, it has suffered in comparison with manufacturing and has recently accepted drastic federal regulation of production. The very fact that agriculture is *not* organized into large units is being used as an argument in favor of federal regulation of the industry.

Over 40 per cent of all business activity in the United States is not in corporate hands at all, much less in the grip of giants. Although the cigarette industry, banking, and the aluminum industry are examples of concentrated control, these are not representative of industry as a whole. As the Twentieth Century Fund's report, *Big Business*, sums up the matter: "It is just as true to say that big business does not predominate in America as to say that it does." Debaters will do well to keep this fact in mind.

The change in industrial methods since 1790, however, has been marked, and has left its imprint on the structure of government. The Interstate Commerce Commission, Federal Trade Commission, and Securities and Exchange Commission are but a few of the federal agencies which owe their existence primarily to the growth of nationally organized industry. Because of the fact that Congress has always had the constitutional power to regulate interstate commerce, the vital point in this discussion is that such a large portion of industry falls into that classification rather than into the control of the individual states. Another fundamental fact is that these industries, whether large or small, are today far more interdependent than at any other time in our history.

This brings us to the third point in our outline— isolation versus interdependence—where spectacular developments have taken place since 1790. The isolation of the colonial farm is difficult to imagine today. No morning newspaper in the mailbox brought the farm family news and opinion from the far corners of the nation and of the world. Radio, telegraph, and telephone existed only in the minds of those who dealt in black magic. The physical impossibility of successfully directing the affairs of half a continent without such rapid communication was strikingly illustrated during the War of 1812. Because news traveled slowly, the Battle of New Orleans was fought fully two weeks after the treaty of peace had been signed.

Equally important with increasing communication is the fact of growing economic interdependence. The farm of 1790 was a relatively self-sufficient unit, satisfying the simple needs of the family by the skill

⁴ *Encyclopedia of Social Sciences*, article on "Corporations."

and industry of its own members. Food, clothing, and shelter were provided by fertile acres of wheat, corn, potatoes and cotton, with meadow and woodland, and cows, sheep, and hogs. Unemployment was practically unknown in such an agricultural setting. Each farm existed unto itself, relatively independent and self-sufficient. In that type of society, the federal government limited its activity largely to national defense and meager regulation of foreign and interstate commerce. This is illustrated by the fact that Washington's cabinet included only Secretaries of State, Treasury and War, and the Attorney General.

In the twentieth century, however, this picture has been greatly modified. The small farmer depends on the city worker as a consumer of his produce. The industrial wage-earner sees in the farm population a vast market for city-made shoes, automobiles, tools, and clothing. The welfare of each group in the nation is intimately bound up with the welfare of every other group. Oranges from California or Florida are found on the breakfast tables of city families from Maine to Oregon. Fords, Chevrolets, Plymouths, and other makes of cars are to be seen parked beside every rural church in the land on Sunday morning. These economic ties cut across state boundaries more than ever before in our history, and make of the United States an interdependent economic unit. For maximum efficiency, it would seem that such a national economic unit should be regulated from Washington—if it is to be regulated at all.

The fourth item on our list deals with labor unions. As industry has developed huge corporations controlling the steel, aluminum, automobile, meat-packing, textile, and railroad industries, labor has adopted similar tactics. Purely local unions have been tied together into potent federations and brotherhoods organized nationally. In 1939 the American Federation of Labor reported a paid-up membership of four million, while the Congress of Industrial Organizations claimed a total of five million. Just as nationally organized industry has called for regulation by the federal government, so have nationally organized unions given rise to the National Labor Relations Board. This development has also been reflected in the federal government by the establishment of a national Bureau of Labor in 1884, just after the origin of the American Federation of Labor, and later by the addition to the President's cabinet of a Secretary of Labor.

The fifth item in this survey of economic and social changes, and the result of all of them, is unemployment. Prior to the depression of 1929, the federal government took no direct action in this matter. During the first years of the depression President Hoover insisted that the relief of unemployment was essentially a local concern. Long-range planning and direct intervention by the government in steps to

solve the problem were rejected. It is significant that the problem of unemployment has grown more acute as the nation has become industrialized, urbanized, and increasingly interdependent. This problem, which was practically non-existent in the agricultural society of Jefferson's day, is now generally regarded as the most compelling problem facing American government and industry today. The increase in employment caused by the war boom deceives no one into thinking that any solution has as yet been found for it.

Since 1929, private charity, as well as local and state government, has been unable or unwilling to meet the demands of an unemployed industrial population and an impoverished farm group. Long-term remedies for the problem seem to lie beyond the scope of state action, yet the dangers of federal control are obvious. This situation has given rise to federally financed public works projects for employable persons, direct relief for those who are not employable, federal wage and hour laws for interstate industry, and a far-reaching program of social security initiated by the federal government. The question as to whether unemployment can be eliminated best through more or less governmental action is being hotly debated in the arena of national politics.

With this rather sketchy historical survey in mind, we are ready to tackle the real problem before us. Has the federal government gone far enough? Should still more power be delegated to the government at Washington? If so, what power or powers?

An unfortunate misunderstanding has risen on this point among debaters and coaches. Does the term "increased power" mean an additional grant of power to Congress, over and above the powers enumerated in the Constitution? Or does it mean simply the extension of federal activity into spheres where it is not now using the powers already granted? At present there seems to be no generally accepted answer to these questions, although most commentators seem to accept increased activity as meaning increased power. Under this interpretation the term "power" means the same as "power in use." This presents an interesting matter for class discussion on the subject of implied powers of Congress. With the Constitution open to Article I, section 8, consider the activities of the federal government today and have the students decide exactly how the Constitution grants that power.

Pending a decision on this interpretation, what powers are likely to be asked for the federal government? Here we find it possible to classify the proposals into two groups, one including relatively minor changes and the other including major changes in policy. The former may be of great importance, but they will be specific and strictly limited grants of power. The latter will include far-reaching proposals

for increasing the authority of the federal government.

A partial list of the minor arguments is included here to indicate the nature of them and to suggest possibilities for debaters and coaches: uniform marriage and divorce laws, uniform traffic laws, increased power to combat Fifth Column activities, elimination of state trade barriers, federal incorporation of all interstate business, increased federal regulation of insurance companies and banking, a child labor amendment, increased aid to education, greater participation by the federal government in the production of electricity, flood control, conservation of natural resources, more stringent regulation of radio and advertising, and government ownership of the railroads.

Among the proposals of a more general nature are the following: federal control of all exports and imports to meet the menace of totalitarianism; federal regulation of hours, wages, profits, and prices in all industry (intrastate as well as interstate) in order to raise the standard of living, increase purchasing power, and decrease unemployment; increased federal regulation of agriculture in the manner of the Soil Conservation and Domestic Allotment Act; complete government control of industry and agriculture to meet the need for both military and economic defense against aggression.

For classroom discussion, these specific problems obviously offer an immense field—perhaps too much territory. Concerning state trade barriers, for example, there is much interesting material suitable for use by high school students (see bibliography), while the problem itself is one that is easily understood. It presents a striking comparison to the period under the Articles of Confederation.

How can the United States best meet the spread of totalitarianism? This question has been debated by college groups, so a great deal of material is available in the published debates. Current magazines and newspaper articles deal with this problem every day. For class discussion, questions such as the following may be used to precipitate many lively debates: Are we in imminent danger of invasion? Do we need a large conscript army? Can we re-arm fast enough without governmental control of hours, wages, profits, and distribution of raw materials? Should strikes on defense jobs be forbidden by law? Can we trade with a Hitler-dominated Europe without resorting to fascist controls? Will South America swing toward totalitarianism and thus menace our safety?

The older high school students today are thinking seriously about national debt, wages and hours, unemployment, depression, and the war boom. Why has the debt risen so rapidly in recent years? How can the budget be balanced? What are the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1938? Do we

have a problem of overproduction? Is our unemployment due to the introduction of new machinery? Can we raise the standard of living in the United States by means of higher wages, or by lowering prices? Should the federal government return to the policies of Harding and Coolidge? Limitation of crops under federal supervision may be profitably discussed for several days. Is it possible to enjoy the proposed benefits of a planned economy and still maintain individual freedom and democracy?

These are but a few suggestions for class discussion. This debate topic is so broad that it can never be exhausted—at least, not until the debaters themselves are exhausted. For this reason, many coaches have criticized it as unsuited to debate. However, if we consider debating as an activity intended to educate the student in current problems, this topic has limitless possibilities. Every activity of the government will be brought under critical observation. The successful debater must think on his feet and have a rich background of general knowledge. Coach-written speeches and "canned" rebuttal will be hopelessly out of place. The affirmative must be ready to defend all the important commissions, boards, and agencies set up by the federal government in recent years. The alert debater will have at his fingertips data concerning the TVA, NLRB, SCADA, SEC, and ICC, to mention but a few of the "alphabet agencies."

Another area which offers material for student research and discussion is the experience of foreign governments. Italy, Germany, Russia, and Japan have developed governments with tremendous power over all phases of their national life. At the same time they have suppressed individual freedom. What lessons do these experiments hold for America? Can we successfully compete with these nations in military and economic struggles without adopting similar policies? Is it contradictory to assert that we must become a dictatorship in order to preserve democracy? To deal with questions of this type the debater must have an understanding of recent European history, and must be trained to buttress his arguments with facts rather than with emotional oratory.

Debate and discussion of such problems were never more needed than in 1940 America. Democracy is on trial today, and must prove itself effective or go down to defeat. An intelligent, informed citizenry is essential to true democracy, but our schools today are doing far too little in this direction. Active discussion of current problems must replace the too prevalent practice of teaching facts to be put in cold storage against the day of examination. In its pamphlet, *Democracy and Its Competitors*, the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools includes this significant statement: "The educational practices in a great many secondary schools need improvement. Effective education for citizenship must be instituted. Students must be given opportunities

to develop skill in problem-solving techniques so that they may make an intelligent approach to civic problems. . . . The idea of education as acquisition and storage of information will not equip individuals for citizenship." The true friends of American democracy are the debate coaches and social studies teachers who train students in honest, frank, and relentless discussion of current problems. The debate topic for 1940-41 provides abundant room for such training. Let's take advantage of it!

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There is so much material available on this subject that the task of selection at first seems hopeless. The following list is restricted to material which seems best adapted for use by high school students. It is intended to be suggestive rather than all-inclusive.

In addition to the titles mentioned, the many handbooks published each year are valuable. There is much feeling among educators that such pre-digested material is harmful to the student. This year, however, with such a vast topic for consideration, a good handbook will be of infinite value to all debaters and coaches. The bibliographies which these books contain will supplement the few suggestions made here.

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All Aboard the Overland Stage!

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The facility and comfort of the traveler of today in spanning the Great Plains, the Rocky Mountains, and the western deserts in the modern railway coach,

in the automobile, and, lately, in the aeroplane, tend to blind him to the hardships encountered by his great-grandfather in crossing the same area during

the middle of the last century. The overland stagecoach has come to be nothing more than a symbol of a past era; yet in its day, it ranked high in the service of its generation and deserves to be honored as a promotor of settlement, a disseminator of culture, and a precursor of the railroads. As a matter of fact, scarcely a trans-Mississippi railroad line does not follow a post road; and over most of these roads, stagecoach wheels cut deep tracks before rails of steel were laid. Recently, the motor cars have revitalized the old trails by following them with even more fidelity than the railroads, while the air pilot in his crow flight can see below gas-propelled specks moving along paved highways at a speed which his ancestors cracking their whips in Concord coaches would have thought a threat not only to safety but also to the health of the human body.

Indeed, only a little more than a hundred years ago, a school board in the progressive state of Ohio, in response to a petition for the use of the schoolhouse for a debate on the question of the probable use and value of the new steam power for railroads, replied in these words: "You are welcome to use the schoolhouse to debate all proper questions; but such things as railroads . . . are impossibilities and rank infidelity. There is nothing in the word of God about them. If God had designed that His intelligent creatures should travel at the frightful speed of fifteen miles an hour by steam He would have foretold it through His Holy prophets. It is a device of Satan to lead immortal souls down to Hell." Moreover, in that same year a group of distinguished doctors of Boston gave an ominous warning to the effect that the jars occasioned by traveling at the unprecedented rate of twenty miles an hour would, in many instances, lead to "concussion of the brain."

Although, obviously, the horse and buggy provided a safe means of conveyance for the learned doctors of that seat of culture in 1829, the next decade saw a remarkable development and expansion of the railroads. Nevertheless, for many years the horse and buggy, the stagecoach, and the freight wagon reigned unchallenged throughout the western half of the United States.

In that expanse of territory lived some 300,000 semi-civilized Indians and approximately 250,000 white men in 1850, and perhaps twice that number ten years later. The white settlements were located in a few isolated communities in places like Santa Fe, Salt Lake City, the Willamette Valley in Oregon, and the gold and silver mining centers in California, Nevada, and Colorado, separated from each other by hundreds of miles of unoccupied country.

Between the East and these settlements together with the numerous army posts on the frontier a large trade had developed, the extent of which may be indicated by the fact that during the early sixties

some \$30,000,000 was paid annually for the hauling of freight westward from points on the Missouri River alone, and an additional \$13,000,000, from the coast towns of California inland. Frequently, during the summer months, five or six hundred heavily laden wagons passed westward through Fort Kearny on the old Oregon Trail in a single day. In 1866 Frank A. Root in a one day's stage ride eastward from Julesburg on one of several freighting routes counted 888 westbound wagons drawn by 10,655 oxen, mules, and horses. Since the average wagon load was considerably in excess of 5,000 pounds, this represented a large volume of freight.

At first, this extensive business was shared by many individual firms. With the passing of time, however, it became concentrated in the hands of an ever decreasing number of great companies, many of which were comparable in their day to our own huge truck companies. One of these, the Russell, Majors and Waddell Company, at the height of its power employed approximately 6,000 teamsters and owned 6,250 wagons and 75,000 oxen, mules, and horses. These animals hitched to their wagons would have made a train forty miles long. Writing from the Eastern headquarters of this firm in St. Joseph, Missouri, on the occasion of his trans-continental journey in 1859 Horace Greeley said: "Such acres of wagons! Such pyramids of extra axletrees! Such herds of oxen! Such regiments of drivers and other employees! No one who does not see can realize how vast a business this is, nor how immense are its outlay as well as its income. I presume this great firm has at this hour two millions of dollars invested in stock, mainly oxen, mules and wagons." Ben Holladay, who acquired this company in 1862, gradually bought out or forced out other companies until he came into control of more than 5,000 miles of stagecoach and freight lines capitalized at not less than \$4,000,000.

With the growth of the western settlements, business men and travelers in ever increasing numbers found occasion to make the long journey to the West either by the circuitous water route by way of the Isthmus of Panama or overland by means of such conveyances as were available. The extent of this travel by water may be indicated by the fact that from 1849 to 1857 inclusive 381,000 individuals went out to California by water, and 139,000 came East. During the late fifties, the average time required to make this one-way trip by water was twenty-six days. The number who took the overland routes was much smaller, and they were chiefly prospective settlers rather than persons traveling either for business or for pleasure.

At first, the overland journeys were made on horseback or by the slow and trying conveyance in the ox-wagon train, which at best averaged not more than twelve or fifteen miles a day. In time, however, stage

lines were established between the Missouri River and Denver. Later, these were extended to the Great Salt Lake and eventually to the Pacific Coast. With but few exceptions these lines were owned and operated by the freighting companies. By the early sixties, most of the stage routes east of the Great Salt Lake passed into the hands of the Russell, Majors and Waddell Company, and in 1862, as has been said, they were acquired by Ben Holladay. West of the Great Salt Lake, the Wells, Fargo, and Company practically monopolized both the passenger and the overland freighting business.

Meanwhile, the persistent demand for an overland mail service increased from year to year. Accordingly, several abortive attempts were made during the decade following the close of the Mexican War to establish by means of government subsidies regular mail service to western communities; but the service was slow, irregular, and generally unsatisfactory, and the cost of approximately \$1,500,000 annually was thought to be exorbitant. Hence, the bulk of the mail continued to be sent to San Francisco by way of the Isthmus of Panama. With the passing of time, however, Congress came to feel that some means of establishing direct overland contact with the isolated settlements in the West was necessary for the maintenance of continued loyalty to the Union on the part of the people of the West.

Indeed, as early as 1846, President Polk had stated in a message to Congress; "It is important that mail facilities, so indispensable for the diffusion of information, and for binding together the different portions of our extended Confederacy, should be afforded to our citizens west of the Rocky Mountains." Four years later, Congressman R. H. Stanton, chairman of the House Committee on Post Offices and Post Roads, re-emphasized the importance of the establishment of adequate overland lines of communication and transportation. In a report to Congress he declared:

California is far distant, and it appears to me that I am stating a self-evident proposition when I say that the government itself must either open a way to that distant land, or encourage its citizens so to do; that for this purpose it must incur expenses for which it will be reimbursed—not immediately, indeed, but after a while. . . . The claim of the people of the West to have an immediate safe and practicable route, to serve until a railroad is built, I think a fair, reasonable, righteous, and constitutional claim.

These opinions were reiterated in every session of Congress during the fifties and early sixties by Congressmen from the West and by those from the East who saw the need of tying up the widely dispersed settlements of the West with the older sections of

the country as an inevitable means of preserving the unity of the nation. The results of their efforts appeared in the ever mounting appropriations for mail service in the West, only a fraction of which was returned to the government in postal receipts.

The most pretentious of these subsidies was one authorized in March, 1857, granting \$600,000 annually for six years for the establishment of a mail stage line from the Mississippi River to San Francisco, California, a distance of nearly three thousand miles. The service was to be semi-weekly, and the time allotted for the journey was not to exceed twenty-five days. The contract for this unprecedented undertaking was awarded to John Butterfield, a man with much experience in the stagecoach business in upstate New York. The lines were to start from St. Louis, Missouri, and Memphis, Tennessee, and to converge at Little Rock, Arkansas, going thence by way of Preston and El Paso, Texas, to Fort Yuma, California, and San Francisco. Under the direction of the energetic Butterfield, road construction was begun immediately, for not even the semblance of a road existed along more than half of the designated route. Though a large and costly operation, this task was completed in a little more than a year; and the line was equipped with 100 coaches, 1,000 horses, 500 mules, and 750 men. About 160 supply stations and corrals were erected at intervals along the route. Needless to say, the road was rough and difficult of passage along most of its course.

Nevertheless, on September 15, 1858, service was begun by the simultaneous departure of stages from the Father of Waters and the Golden Gate. In order to comply with the stipulated time limit, continuous travel was necessary both day and night. On the arrival in St. Louis of the stage from San Francisco in twenty-three days and four hours, Mr. Butterfield telegraphed the glad tidings to President Buchanan, who replied with the following message: "Sir—Your dispatch has been received. I cordially congratulate you upon the results. It is a glorious triumph for civilization and the Union. Settlement will soon follow the course of the road, and the East and the West will be bound together by a chain of living Americans which can never be broken." Of some significance was the fact that the postal receipts of the Butterfield Overland Stage Company for the first year of its operation were slightly more than \$27,000. Although many unexpected difficulties were encountered, the stages which soon ran daily instead of semi-weekly, continued to operate according to schedule until the opening of the Civil War. Then the line was moved north to the Central Route, and the subsidy increased to a million dollars a year. In 1862, Butterfield sold his government mail contract and properties to Ben Holladay.

With the growth of passenger travel throughout

the West the various stage lines came to operate on regular schedules, much as our buses do today. Furthermore, they gave ever increasing consideration to the convenience and comfort of their passengers. As time went on, supply stations were established along the main lines, and the roads were so improved that by 1860 the average distance covered by the stages was between 100 and 110 miles in twenty-four hours.

The standard coaches, used almost exclusively in the West, were made in Concord, New Hampshire. The body of the coach was made water tight with a view to using it as a boat in ferrying streams. Behind the body was the triangular "boot" for mail, express, or baggage, and at the front under the driver's seat was another compartment for similar articles. Each coach could carry nine passengers inside, three to a seat, and in some instances six or eight on benches on the top. The front seat faced backward, and the middle seat was often a movable bench-like arrangement with little or no support for the back. The best grade of coach had leather upholstery and curtains; but the seat padding was thin, and the seats themselves were quite uncomfortable. The outside was painted in gaudy colors and generally bore a name. A Concord coach weighed about 2,500 pounds, and its cost in the West ran from \$1,000 to \$1,500. Of one of these vehicles Mark Twain in a book published in 1872 under the title *Roughing It* remarked: "Our coach was a great swinging and swaying stage of the most sumptuous description—an imposing cradle on wheels." Each coach was drawn by from four to eight horses or mules, depending on the size of the load and the condition of the road.

The stage drivers were men of experience and reliability in the difficult task of guiding the more or less unruly horses or mules over the hazards of the roads and of meeting Indian attacks or such problems as might arise in the sparsely settled area through which they passed. Indeed, they took their chances and counted themselves lucky if at the end of their respective runs "their skins would hold whiskey without leaky and annoying bullet holes." They were as a group high spirited, boastful, arrogant, and often very profane.

The stagecoach fares varied greatly from time to time and even from place to place. The rate from St. Louis to San Francisco by way of the Butterfield Overland Stage route, a distance of nearly 3,000 miles, was \$200, while the return trip was \$100. At about the same time, the fares from St. Joseph or Atchison on the Missouri River to San Francisco, a distance of about 2,000 miles, was \$250, a figure that was increased to \$500 during the Civil War. As a general rule, rates ranged from eight to fifteen cents a mile depending on transportation difficulties and competition.

Structurally there were no real roads. The old Concord coaches "pounded across the prairie, forded rivers, climbed mountains, and pitched down them again," more as a matter of luck than by any favor of the condition of the road. It was heavy hauling at best with only occasional level stretches where the horses could be induced to trot or to gallop. At worst, there were streams to ford, and mountainous sections where progress could not be made faster than a walk. Paxson, in his *History of the American Frontier*, says: "The romantic artists have generally pictured the overland stage swaying and tossing as the horses were driven at a run; it would be more truthful to show their slow plod through shifting sands."

While some travelers appear to have enjoyed riding on the stages, most of them found it an ordeal of the first magnitude, especially when long distances were traversed. The impressions of a Britisher, Sir Henry Huntley, on a journey from Sacramento to Placerville over a relatively good road are interesting. Among other things he complained about the absence of classes or "divisions" aboard the stages. He wrote, "The passenger coolly gets into the vehicle, and placing himself between two others, sits down, and relies upon his own weight making the other two sufficiently uncomfortable, to aid him in establishing himself between them." Sir Henry was annoyed also by the unceremonious use by "dirty citizens" of tobacco and its accompaniments and by promiscuous spitting on the floor and out of the windows; and he was distracted when one stage met another and greetings were exchanged in "language that places blasphemy . . . as a light offense, comparatively."

Not dissimilar were the observations of Demas Bares, who made the trip from St. Joseph, Missouri, to Denver in 1865. He wrote in *From the Atlantic to the Pacific, Overland*:

The conditions of one man's running stages to make money while another seeks to ride in them for pleasure, are not in harmony to produce comfort. Coaches will be overloaded, it will rain, the dust will drive, baggage will be left to the storm, passengers will get sick, gentlemen of gallantry will hold the baby, children will cry, nature will demand sleep, passengers will get angry, the drivers will swear, the sensitive will shrink, rations will give out, potatoes will become worth a dollar each, the water brackish, the whiskey abominable, and the dirt almost unendurable. I have just finished six days and nights of this thing, and I am free to say, until I forget a great many things now very visible to me, I shall not undertake it again. Stop over night? No, you wouldn't! To sleep on the sand floor of a one-story sod or adobe hut, without

chance to wash, with miserable food, uncongenial companionship, loss of seat in a coach until one comes empty, etc., won't work. A through ticket and fifteen inches of seat, with a fat man on one side, a poor widow on the other, a baby in your lap, a handbox over your head, and three or four persons immediately in front, leaning against your knees, make a picture, as well as your sleeping place for the trip.

Of an entirely different tenor were the comments of General James F. Rustling, who journeyed to California by Ben Holladay's line in 1866. He stated that the stages surpassed his expectations, "both as to comfort and as to speed."

An excellent description of the conditions of travel over the Southern or Butterfield Overland Stage Route is found in a book published in 1870 by Raphael Pumpelly, a distinguished engineer, entitled *Across America and Asia*. He wrote:

In autumn of 1860, I reached the westernmost end of the railroad in Missouri, finishing the first, and, in point of time, the shortest stage in a journey, the end of which I had not even attempted to foresee. My immediate destination was the silver mines of the Santa Rita, in Arizona, of which I was to take charge, as a mining engineer; for a year, under the resident superintendent.

Having secured the right to a back seat in the overland coach as far as Tucson, I looked forward with comparatively little dread, to sixteen days and nights of continuous travel. But the arrival of a woman and her brother dashed, at the very outset, my hopes of an easy journey, and obliged me to take the front seat, where with my back to the horses, I began to foresee the coming discomfort. The coach was fitted with three seats, and these were occupied by nine passengers. As the occupants of the front and middle seats faced each other, it was necessary for these people to interlock their knees; and there being room inside for only ten or twelve legs, each side of the coach was graced by a foot, now dangling near the wheel, now trying in vain to find a place of support. An unusually heavy mail in the boot, by weighing down the rear, kept those of us who were on the front seat constantly bent forward, thus, by taking away all support from our backs, rendering rest at all times out of the question.

My immediate neighbors were a tall Missourian, with his wife and two young daughters; and from this family arose a large part of the discomfort of the journey. The man was a border bully, armed with revolver, knife and rifle;

the woman, a very hag, ever following the disgusting habit of dipping—filling the air, and covering her clothes with snuff; and the girl, for several days overcome by seasickness, and in this having no regard for the clothes of their neighbors—these were circumstances which offered slight promise of comfort on a journey which, at the best, could only be difficult and tedious. . . .

After passing the Arkansas River, and traveling two or three days through the cultivated region of northeastern Texas, we came gradually to the outposts of population. The rivers became fewer, and deeper below the surface; the rolling prairie-land covered with grass gave way to dry gravelly plains, on which the increasing preponderance of species of cacti, and of yucca, warned us of our approach to the great American desert. . . . One can scarcely picture a more desolate and barren region than the southern part of the Llano Estacado between the Brazos and the Pecos rivers. . . . Our route winding along the southern border of the region, kept on the outskirts of the Comanche country.

Here we were constantly exposed to the raids of the fierce tribe, which has steadily refused to be tamed by the usual process of treaties and presents. They were committing serious depredations along the route, and had murdered the keepers at several stations. We consequently approached the stockade station-houses with considerable anxiety, not knowing whether we should find either keepers or horses. Over this part of the road no lights were used at night, and we were thus exposed to the additional danger of having our necks broken by being upset.

The fatigue of uninterrupted traveling by day and night in a crowded coach, and in the most uncomfortable positions, was beginning to tell seriously upon all the passengers, and was producing a condition bordering on insanity. . . . In some persons, this temporary mania developed itself to such a degree that their own safety and that of their fellow-travelers made it necessary to leave them at the nearest station, where sleep usually restored them before the arrival of the next stage the following week. Instances have occurred of travelers jumping in this condition from the coach, and wandering off to death from starvation upon the desert.

Beyond the Pecos river the scenery became more varied. The route lay over broad plains, where the surface sloped gently away from castellated and cliff-bound peaks. . . .

Over the hard surface of this country, which is everywhere a natural road, we frequently traveled at great speed, with only half broken teams. At several stations, six wild horses were hitched blindfolded into their places. When everything was ready, the blinds were removed at a signal from the driver, and the animals started off at a run-away speed, which they kept up without slackening till the next station, generally twelve miles distant. . . . Nothing but the most perfect presence of mind on the part of the driver could prevent accidents. Even this was not always enough, as was proved by a stage which we met, in which every passenger had either a bandaged head or an arm in a sling.

At El Paso we had hoped to find a larger stage. Being disappointed in this, I took a place outside, between the driver and conductor. The impossibility of sleeping had made me half delirious, and we had gone but a few miles before I nearly unseated the driver by starting suddenly out of a dream. . . . During the journey from the Rio Grande to Tucson my delirium increased, and the only thing I have ever remembered of that part of the route was the sight of a large number of Indian camp-fires at Apache Pass. My first recollection after this, is of being awakened by the report of a pistol, and of starting up to find myself in a crowded room, where a score or more of people were quarrelling at a gaming table. I had reached Tucson, and had thrown myself on the floor of the first room I could enter. A sound sleep of twelve hours had fully restored me, both in mind and body.

Horace Greeley, who crossed the continent in 1859 by way of the Central Route, published his diary the following year under the title, *An Overland Journey From New York to San Francisco*. In this he gives a graphic description of the conditions of travel on the Overland Stage several hundred miles to the north of the Butterfield route. In common with Pumpelly he found the trip exacting, yet highly interesting. After he had arrived at Denver he wrote:

I believe I have now descended the ladder of artificial life nearly to its lowest round. If the Cheyennes—thirty of whom stopped the last express down on the route we must traverse, and tried to beg or steal from it—shall see fit to capture and strip us, we shall probably have further experience in the same line; but for the present the progress I have made during the last fortnight toward primitive simplicity of human existence may be roughly noted thus:

May 12. Chicago.—Chocolate and morning

newspapers last seen at the breakfast table. May 23. Leavenworth.—Room-bells and baths make their final appearance.

May 24. Topeka.—Beef-steak and wash bowls (other than tins) last visible. Barber ditto.

May 26. Manhattan.—Potatoes and eggs last recognized among the blessings that 'brighten as they take their flight.' Chairs ditto.

May 27. Junction City.—Last visitation of a boot black, with dissolving views of board bed-rooms. Beds bid us good-bye.

May 28. Pipe Creek.—Benches for seats at meals have disappeared, giving place to bags and boxes. We (two passengers of a scribbling turn) wrote our letters in the express-wagon that has borne us by day, and must supply us lodging by night.

On the remainder of his journey there were few experiences that he did not encounter—the passing through vast herds of buffalo, Indian depredations, reckless drivers, poor food, intense heat and bad roads. On one occasion in crossing a deep "gully" the stage "went over, hitting the ground a most spiteful blow." "In the midst of the bewilderment" the mules were disengaged and ran frantically across the prairie, and Greeley was thrown from the stage. "I had a slight cut," he wrote, "on my cheek and a deep gouge . . . in my left leg below the knee." A few days later, while fording the Sweetwater River one of the mules turned about and ran into his mate, "whom he threw down and tangled so that he could not get up; and in a minute another mule was down, and the two were in imminent danger of drowning. These were soon liberated from the harness," and the stage safely conveyed to the other side of the stream. Meanwhile, Greeley's trunk was lost in ten feet of water just below the ford, and he was compelled to proceed on his journey without it, regardless of the fact that he valued it at a thousand dollars. "We forded the Sweetwater six times yesterday after that," he continued, "without a single mishap; but I have hardly yet become reconciled to the loss of my trunk. . . ."

On the desert to the west of Humboldt Lake he suffered intensely from the heat. The journey was tedious, and the road so bad in places that he and the other passengers were forced to walk. Finally, he records, "after riding four days and the intervening nights without rest, we drew up at the station near the sink of the Carson."

Of the passage over the high Sierras Greeley wrote:

But the road . . . is, for the most of the way, eaten into the side of a steep mountain, with a precipice of from five to fifteen hundred feet on the one side and as steep an eminence on the

other. Yet along this mere shelf, with hardly a place to each mile where two meeting wagons can pass, the mail-stage was driven at the rate of ten miles an hour, or just as fast as four wild Californian horses, whom two men could scarcely harness, could draw it. Our driver was of course skillful; but had he met a wagon suddenly on rounding one of the sharp points or projections we were constantly passing, a fearful crash was unavoidable. Had his horses seen fit to run away . . . I know that he could not have held them, and we might have been pitched headlong down a precipice of a thousand feet, where all of the concern that could have been picked up afterward would not have been worth two bits per bushel. Yet at this break-neck rate we were driven for not less than four hours or forty miles, changing horses every ten or fifteen, and raising a cloud of dust through which it was difficult at times to see anything.

After this hazardous journey he could but soliloquize, "I cannot conscientiously recommend the route I have traveled to summer tourists in quest of pleasure, but it is a balm for many bruises to know that I am at last in California."

Mark Twain who traveled over part of the same region two years later wrote in *Roughing It*:

We crossed the Great American Desert—forty memorable miles of bottomless sand, into which the coach sunk from six inches to a foot. We worked our passage most of the way across. That is to say, we got out and walked. It was a dreary pull and a long and thirsty one, for we had no water. From one extremity of this desert to the other, the road was white with the bones of oxen and horses. It would hardly be an exaggeration to say that we could have walked the forty miles and set our feet on a bone every step! The desert was one prodigious graveyard. . . .

The mules, under violent swearing, coaxing, and whip-cracking would make at stated intervals, a 'spurt' and drag the coach a hundred yards. . . . Then a rest followed, with the usual sneezing and bit champing. Then another "spurt" of a hundred yards and another rest at the end of it. All day long we kept this up, without water for the mules and without ever changing the team. . . . It was so stupid and tiresome and dull! and the tedious hours did lag and drag and limp along with such cruel deliberation! . . . The alkali dust cut through our lips, it persecuted our eyes, it ate through the delicate membranes and made our noses bleed and kept them bleeding—and left the desert trip nothing but a harsh reality—a thirsty, sweltering, long-

ing hateful reality! Two miles and a quarter an hour for ten hours—that is what we accomplished. . . .

When the stage lines had been greatly improved, Samuel Bowles, editor of the *Springfield Republican*, crossed the continent in company with Schuyler Colfax, the Speaker of the House of Representatives in Washington. Needless to say, Ben Holladay left no stone unturned in his effort to make the journey as peaceful, comfortable, and speedy as possible. Consequently, the accounts of the trip, published by Mr. Bowles in 1865 under the title *Across the Continent*, may not be wholly typical of the average experience of passengers. Nevertheless, a few excerpts from this book may be interesting.

Atchison, Kansas, May 21, 1865.

A week of leisure traveling ends the first or railroad stage of the great overland trip across the Continent. It is 1,425 miles by railroad from Springfield to Atchison, via Buffalo, Cleveland, Hannibal and St. Joseph through northern Missouri. Here the utmost post of our eastern railway system ends, and we commence a coach ride of two thousand miles before we meet the projecting arm of the California railway at Placerville. Thence a day takes us down to San Francisco, and the Continent is spanned, the national breadth is measured. . . .

Fort Kearney, Nebraska, May 24.

The weather has been clear and warm; the company intelligent and good natured; . . . the country and its scenes most novel and inspiring. We drove at an average of six miles an hour, including all stops, sometimes making full ten miles an hour on the road, in an easy and commodious new Concord stage. . . . Every ten or twenty miles we came to a station, sometimes in a village of log and turf cabins, but oftener solitary and alone, where we change horses; and every two or three stations, we change drivers; but except for meals, for which half an hour is allowed, our stops do not exceed five minutes each. . . .

Denver, Colorado, May 29.

Our stage rolled into this town, the leading one of Colorado Territory, and lying under the very shadow of the Rocky Mountains, on Saturday noon, exactly 'on time,' and in less than five days from the Missouri River. It was a magnificent, uninterrupted stage ride of six hundred and fifty miles, much more endurable in its discomforts, much more exhilarating in its novelties, than I had anticipated. . . .

Our meals at the stage stations continued very good throughout the ride; the staples were bacon, eggs, hot biscuits, green tea and coffee;

dried peaches and apples, and pies were as uniform; beef was occasional, and canned fruits and vegetables were furnished at least half of the time. Each meal was the same; breakfast, dinner and supper were undistinguishable save by the hour; and the price was one dollar or one dollar and a half each. . . .

Salt Lake City, June 12.

We finished early yesterday (Sunday) morning the second and severest third of the great stage-ride across the Continent. We are now two-thirds of the way to California. . . . The distance from Denver to Salt Lake is six hundred miles; we should have driven it in five days but for the Indians, who broke in upon the line before us and cleaned it out of horses for fifty miles, threw the country into confusion and travel into anxiety, and delayed our progress for two or three days, so that we were in all seven days in the trip. But we just escaped more severe possible disaster; for the 'pesky sarpints,' as they are not unnaturally reckoned by everybody in the West, hovered close upon both our front and our rear; our escort drove off a band of them who were attacking a train of repentant and returning Mormons, right in our path; and they swooped in upon a stage station the night after we passed it, stole all its horses, killed the two stock-tenders, also three of the five soldiers who were located there as guards, and severely if not mortally wounded the other two. But though our escort was small over this line, never over ten cavalymen, and sometimes none at all, our coach came through unmolested. . . .

Through all this inhospitable, barren region, there are no buildings save the stage stations; no inhabitants but the stock-tender and the station-keeper; an occasional tended wigwam of half-breed or father of half-breeds stands by a stream: we pass with pity the emigrant's slow wagon and the mule train—hot and dusty and parched by day, cold and shivering and parched by night;—it is a wonder how people can go alive through the country at the rate of only twelve or fifteen miles a day, and finding food and drink as they go. But they do, year by year, thousands of thousands. Shall the Indian still add to the horrors of the passage, as he has and does? . . .

Virginia, Nevada, June 28.

Ambitious to see how fast they could send Mr. Colfax and his friends over their route, they took us up at Salt Lake on Monday morning week, and set us down at Austin, four hundred miles distance, in fifty hours. . . . Awaiting our examination of the mining region about Austin, we were again put over the road on the double

quick, and landed in Virginia, two hundred miles further off, in twenty-two hours more. . . .

From Lake Tahoe to Placerville, the first considerable town in California, is seventy-five miles of well-graded road up to the mountain summits and down on the western side; and the drive over it, made in less than seven hours, even surpassed any that had gone before in rapidity and brilliancy of execution. With six horses, fresh and fast, we swept up the hill at a trot, and rolled down again at their sharpest gallop, turning abrupt corners without a pull-up, twisting among and by the loaded teams of freight toiling over into Nevada, and running along the edge of high precipices, all as deftly as the skater flies or the steam car runs; though for many a moment we held our fainting breath at what seemed great risks or dare devil performances. . . .

San Francisco, July 4. Across the Continent! The Great Ride is finished. Fifteen hundred miles of railroad, two thousand miles of staging, again sixty miles of railway, and then one hundred and fifty miles by steamboat down the Sacramento River, and the goal is reached, the Continent is spanned. Seven weeks of steady journeying, within hail of a single parallel line from east to west, and still the Republic! Still the old flag, . . . still the same Fourth of July; better than all, still the same people, with hearts aglow with the same loyalty and pride in the American Union, and the same purpose and the same faith for its future. . . . San Francisco, looking toward the Orient for greatness, cooling its summer heat with Pacific breezes, thinks the same thoughts, breathes the same patriotism, burns with the same desires that inspire New York and Boston, whose outlook is eastward, and which seem to borrow their civilization with their commerce from Europe. . . .

Regardless of the fact that the passenger service on the stage lines had reached its highest development in 1865 and that it was performing a valuable service to the nation, it was destined soon to be replaced by the railroads. No one understood the significance of the time better than Samuel Bowles. After reviewing his hectic journey across the continent, he voiced the following plea to the nation:

Men of the East! Men of Washington! You have given the toil and even the blood of a million of your brothers and fellows for four years, and spent three thousand million dollars, to rescue one section of the Republic from barbarism and anarchy; and your triumph makes the cost cheap. Lend now a few thousand men,

and a hundred millions of money, to create a new Republic; to marry to the Nation of the Atlantic an equal if not greater Nation of the Pacific. Anticipating a new sectionalism, a new strife, by a triumph of the arts of Peace, that shall be even prouder and more reaching than the victories of your Arms. Here is payment of your great debt; here is wealth unbounded; here the commerce of the world; here the completion of a Republic that is continental; but you must come and take them with the locomotive.

These words epitomized the forces leading to the completion of the trans-continental railroad (in

1869) and the close of the era of the picturesque stagecoach.

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The International Forum

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THE COMMERCIAL RELATIONS BETWEEN HONDURAS AND THE UNITED STATES

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The commercial relations between Honduras and the United States are increasing daily, thus strengthening their diplomatic and official relations, which traditionally have been happy ones.

Honduras purchases more merchandise from the United States than from any other country. This has been due perhaps, among other factors, to their geographical proximity, to American enterprises in Honduras amounting to about \$66,000,000.00, and to the fact that the Commercial Treaty negotiated on March 2, 1936, is in force, whereby both countries recognize and grant concessions, and reduce their tariffs. This is an important factor in uniting both countries in mutual benefits and in bringing about a better understanding of their interests. There is also in force another General Treaty of Friendship, Commerce and Navigation, which was negotiated in June 1928.

Sales from the United States to Honduras in the fiscal year 1938-1939 amounted to \$5,332,532.31, which represent 65.2615 per cent of all the imports of Honduras. Imports of merchandise covered by commercial treaties during the fiscal year 1938-1939, amounted to \$853,803.59. The principal imports under this category were the following: automobiles, leather, calf and kidskins, hosiery, shirts, cereals,

fruits, biscuits, flour, hardware, soap, ham, condensed milk, lumber, tomato paste, sausage, linen cloth, pharmaceutical products, truck and automobile tires, and butter. In the year 1938-1939, Honduras sold to the United States goods to the value of \$8,949,450.07, which is about 90 per cent of the amount of all the exports from Honduras.

The volume of commerce of the United States and Honduras during the years just previous to 1938-1939 is described as follows:

The United States in 1937-1938 continued to be the principal buyer of the Honduran products, and the principal provider of the Honduran market, its proportion reaching a total of 86.5 percent in 1927-1928, as compared to 88.8 per cent in 1936-1937, and 62 per cent of the imports, as compared with 58 per cent in 1936-1937.

The exportation of the natural products of Honduras has been improving each year. This has been due to the peaceful condition of the country and to the volume of labor maintained by President Tiburcio Carias Andino; to the guarantees and facilities enjoyed by the people under his orderly and respected government; to foreign investments in the country;

and to the visible era of progress which the Chief of State has been carrying on, such as opening of new roads, development of new crops, building of new agricultural schools, and the development of smaller industries.

The principal products exported from Honduras are: horses, mules, heifers, bulls, pigs, garlic, almonds, anise, shark fins, bananas, dried bananas, coconuts, copra corozo nuts, coffee, salted meat, dried beans, sweet pepper, dried fish, food pastes, grapefruit, wheat grain, wheat bran, raw cotton, fertilizers, crude coconut oil, turpentine, chickpeas, banana flour, eggs, Mango jelly, lemons, honey, oranges, pineapples, plantains, corn, potatoes, liquid-amber, lard, vegetable lard, butter, cheese, morro pulp, morro seeds, cowhides, pigskins, boarskins, alligator hides, tigrillo, machiapin skins, iguana skins, deer skins, nutria pelts, shark skins, leaf tobacco, pitch, mineral concentrates, scrap metal, cyanide precipitate, novelty jewelry, resi, beeswax, vedar, carreto wood, guayacan wood, mazicaran wood, San Juan wood, Royal cedar, ciruelillo wood, Ceiba wood, Guanacaste wood, Nacasclo wood, Tempiscue wood, mahogany, railway ties, coconut plants, rose plants, fig seeds, zacate seeds, sarsaparilla, pipe tobacco, prepared tobacco, cigars, trunks, tanned alligator hide, sole leather, cotton clothing, hats, ilama, celluloid combs, hair dye, pharmaceutical products, chemical products, saffron, artificial silk cloth, paper, paper bags, printed matter, spare parts for mills, gold amalgam, gold sheets, resmelted gold, gold bars, gold dust, silver amalgam, silver bars, and silver specie.

The subsoil of the country contains aluminum, antimonium, zinc, copper, tin, iron, nickel, gold, silver, copper, coal, petroleum, etc; precious stones, like opals, agates, limestone, rock crystal, feldspar, etc.; also phosphates, guano, potassium, saltpeter, and sulphate. The rivers, Guayape and Jalan, are famous for their gold deposits. The Magnetic Iron Mine of Agalteca is located in the Municipality of Cedros, Department of Tegucigalpa. Technical investigations show that there are about 400,000 tons of iron on the surface; and 9,800,000 tons in the subsoil. The mineral yield is about 70 per cent, and its quality is similar to that of the Norwegian iron. The iron mine is located 138 miles from the port of Amapala, in Fonseca Bay, in the Pacific Ocean, and at a distance of 156 miles from the port of Tela, in the Atlantic.

A great abundance of lime is found in this region (in carbonate form) and also wood, such as pine, oak, etc. There are also a number of deep rivers, suitable for generating electric power. These rivers are: Santa Clara, Agaltequita, Juan Ladrón, and others, which could produce around 40,000 to 50,000 horse power.

The total imports of Honduras during the year 1938-1939 were:

		<i>Per cent</i>
Live stock	\$ 13,608.41	0.1403
Foodstuffs	966,559.37	10.2703
Raw materials	1,202,710.42	12.3948
Manufactured products	7,488,352.49	77.1730
Gold, silver, coins	2,096.52	0.0216
Totals	\$9,473,327.21	100.

The exportation of Honduran products in the year 1938-1939 was as follows:

	<i>Lempiras</i>
Live stock	L 307,828.80
Foodstuffs	13,294,978.77
Raw materials	1,120,717.46
Manufactured products	104,181.97
Gold, silver, coins	4,906,604.05
Total	L19,734,311.05

The internal and external trade of Honduras was as follows:

Amount of imports in Lempiras	L19,496,654.42
Amount of exports	19,734,311.42
Difference which constitutes the commercial balance in the above mentioned year	L 237,657.00

For a general idea of the trade of the Republic, we copy the amount of imports and exports of Honduras during the last ten years; that is to say, from 1929 to 1939:

Imports in Lempiras	L194,285,076.08
Exports	274,091,063.14

It is pertinent to mention that Honduras, following the policy of protection to her industries and of aid to the mining, agricultural, aviation and other enterprises, such as hospitals, houses for the poor, cultural institutions, etc., expended in the year 1938-1939, the sum of Lempiras 345,889.41 of unlevied custom duties, through concessions, official orders and decrees, official acts and reciprocal and special laws, on imported merchandise from the United States, under the Commercial Treaties now in force between the two countries. Regarding these unlevied duties, it must be added, that the exportation of green and ripe bananas, plantains, cacao, coffee, sarsaparilla, and hides, to the United States is free and that special reductions are granted in the tariff duties to several products like balsam, pineapples, guavas, and pastes.

Honduras, in general, is mainly an agricultural country. It specializes in cattle raising, the exploitation of its mines, and in the development of its natural resources, and products. Honduras needs im-

migration and the investment of foreign capital for the development of her industries.

Foreigners in Honduras enjoy, without discrimination, the same civil rights as the people of Honduras. The civil law has no retroactive effect. The acquired rights are inviolate. All foreign investments in Honduras enjoy and find ample and effective protection.

In conclusion may I add, that there is a highway, eighty miles long, which runs from the Atlantic to the Pacific. Much progress has been made in avia-

tion. Commercial aeroplanes cover more than seventy thousand miles per month carrying passengers and freight.

From a careful study of the achievements of Honduras, it can be seen that under the auspices of peace and progress which the illustrious President, General Tiburcio Carias Andino, promotes and defends there is rising a new Honduras, radiant and hopeful for her future.

How to Teach by the Unit Method

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I. THE TWOFOLD PURPOSE OF A UNIT

- A. The central purpose in building a unit should be to make it form a competent study guide which will lead the pupil toward a *tolerant, critical understanding* of some fundamental phase of social evolution that has influenced the making of contemporary civilization.
- B. A second important purpose should be to arrange the work so that it will furnish training in the formation of valuable *social skills and attitudes* and may possibly lead individual students toward *special sustained interests*.

II. PRELIMINARY PREPARATION BY THE TEACHER

- A. No unit will ever be successful, no matter how carefully planned, unless the teacher takes the trouble to study the whole unit in detail and knows its objectives, content, and arrangement before the class begins to work.
- B. No study guide can take the place of the wise guidance of the teacher. Teacher and study are an indispensable partnership for guiding the pupil's study. Moreover, first and foremost among the demands upon the teacher is that of an ability to inspire and sustain the interest of the pupils. No study guide alone can do that.

III. TEACHER PRESENTATION OF EACH UNIT

- A. Each unit should be introduced by the teacher in a brief presentation talk or an informal discussion with the pupils. This presentation of the unit should be as interesting and provocative of thought as possible.
- B. It should attempt definitely to show the pupil not only the immediate objectives of the unit under consideration, but also the practicability of the particular values to be derived. To aid in this connection the objectives of a typical unit are suggested at the close of this article.

- C. Skillful presentation is vital, since enthusiasm or indifference of the pupil toward the study of that particular unit may be created at this juncture. The presentation, well done, becomes the inspiration for student activities.

IV. GENERAL EXPLANATION OF EACH UNIT

- A. A uniform treatment for every unit is inadvisable, because such an approach is too artificial and monotonous. However, each unit may begin with a general explanation which will give the pupil a general picture of the scope of the study. For pupils who need further training in reading comprehension, a general explanation furnishes material for common classroom discussion and for testing the growth of this skill. The writer believes that this use of a general explanation should be occasional rather than habitual.

V. CLASS DISCUSSION

- A. *The point in the unit at which class discussion occurs is variable.* It may come at the end of the reading of the general explanation and then be carried on in connection with the activities for the entire class, or it may be postponed to the end of the problem or even to the end of the unit.
- B. Experimentation with mimeographed sheets of units reveals the wisdom of approaching the discussion of the study activities of the pupils from a fresh angle at various times. Therefore it is unwise to allow the class discussion to become a monotonous consideration of study activities in the exact order in which they may be arranged by the unit organization.

VI. STUDY ACTIVITIES AND RECOGNITION OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

- A. A teacher will always find it possible to make adaptations in his units to suit the type of class

before him, and will use *his own special methods* in handling the activities. Each unit should provide material for days of silent supervised study if such study is desired. It should also provide opportunity for the more alert students to get ahead of the slower in amount of work, without the danger of disorganizing the class as a working group. It would be a fatal mistake to expect certain pupils to do even one of the extra activities or even to expect them to do all the "Study Activities" of a particular unit. In the case of all units the puzzling problem is to make a unit that may be adaptable for both the dull and the bright child, and for the college-preparatory pupil as well as for one for whom the study will end with the year's work. No unit arrangement can solve that problem perfectly. The only solution is to list certain general study activities and then add supplementary individual activities of varying difficulty and interest. A watchful teacher will soon come to know the capacity of the individual pupils and will help them to choose suitable activities. Special efforts must always be made to develop latent possibilities in the slow pupils. Throughout the year many suggestions might be given that should lead to some form of creative expression where a pupil's interest has been awakened.

- B. Study activities in a unit can be overemphasized. It is certainly true that in the first two or three units the creation of enthusiasm, rather than the perfunctory performance of certain set activities by all the pupils, should be the goal.

VII. OPPORTUNITY FOR TRAINING IN SKILLS

- A. Every unit should provide adequate opportunities for growth in such skills as outlining and library research. Summaries at the end of each unit suggest opportunity for practice in clear, logical expression. As early in the course as possible the teacher should have the pupils give *careful attention to the suggestions on working skills*.

VIII. LIBRARY REFERENCE READING FOR EACH UNIT

- A. Charles A. Beard, in his *Charter for the Social Sciences*,¹ says: "The subject matter of social science is the subject matter of letters. Great poets, essayists, novelists, and critics often penetrate more deeply into the social order than professed writers on that theme." The full significance of the habit of reading enrichment material is now recognized by leading educators. It is an *objective that cannot be too strongly emphasized*. It not

only has the immediate practical value of enlarging the pupil's understanding of a particular development or period, but in addition it may result in a practice which will continue to make life more complete after formal education has ceased.

IX. CLASS ORGANIZATION

- A. Since one of the principal objectives of most social studies courses is to make the individual a more constructive and coöperative member of society, a start in this direction might well be made in the organization of the class. For this purpose a class constitution is useful but not necessary. Committees of pupils can very profitably take care of such details as ventilation, neatness of the room, records of attendance, bulletin board, illustrative materials, some disciplinary problems, and the conduct of the class in the absence of the teacher. The committees might arrange for occasional programs of oral topics, debates, group discussions, or exhibits. Active membership on such committees would train all the pupils in effective coöperation. If the chairmanships were passed around, opportunity for *training the superior students in leadership* would be offered.

X. TESTS

- A. Tests should be at the end of all units. Whether they are to be used as *study tests or achievement tests* is for the teacher to decide. In certain units the teacher may wish to economize time by ignoring the activities for the entire class and using simply the general explanation and textbook references for study. After this study the teacher could hand out the tests to be used as study tests, since these bring attention to the facts in the reading which are important to an understanding of the unit as a whole. Then the relation of these facts to the objectives of the unit can be made clear by the teacher in class discussion.

DETAILED SUMMARY OF THE OBJECTIVES

For Most Social Studies Courses

I. STUDY OF THE DEVELOPMENT OF HUMAN CULTURE FROM EARLIEST TIMES TO THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION FOR THE PURPOSE OF

- A. Understanding the origins of many important elements of present-day civilization inherited from past ages.
 B. Evaluating these heritages preparatory to using one's influence toward having them strengthened or eliminated.
 C. Comprehending certain fundamental and universal principles underlying social development.

¹ (New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1932), p. 78.

II. TRAINING IN MENTAL POWERS NECESSARY FOR FORMING INTELLIGENT DECISIONS, ATTITUDES, AND OPINIONS ON SOCIAL MATTERS

A. Habit of open-mindedness.

1. Suspending judgment until one has sufficient accurate evidence on which to base opinions.
2. Preventing prejudices and emotions from influencing judgments.
3. Considering the possibility of partial right on the other side.
4. Watching for added evidence that might alter one's opinions.

B. Habit of applying knowledge gained by study or experience to new situations as they arise in order to understand the new better in the light of the old.

C. Habit of viewing life critically.

1. Keen observation.
2. Alert questioning.
3. Tentative judgments.

D. Power of imagination.

1. Seeing the whole picture.
2. Seeing relationships of parts to one another and to the whole.
3. Seeing that life situations have many causes and lead to many results.

III. PRACTICE IN STRENGTHENING GOOD BUSINESS, PROFESSIONAL, AND STUDY HABITS

A. Habits fundamental to efficient working relationships.

1. Promptness in doing work.
2. Courtesy in giving voluntarily the reason for any delay and some assurance of when missing work will be done.
3. Alertness of attention—the control of one's brain for instant and efficient use.
4. Habitually asking intelligent questions.
5. Practice in doing more than the minimum requirements of a job.

B. Habit of filing materials efficiently.

1. Clear-cut headings to all work.
2. News clippings labeled as to what ideas they illustrate.
3. Systematic order in filing materials.
4. Clear penmanship, or, better, typewritten material.
5. Neatness—an absolute requirement.
6. Maintenance of good margins.

C. Working skills, developed or strengthened.

1. Reading skill.
2. Efficient use of books and library.
3. Efficient use of maps, statistics, and pictures.
4. Skill in the use of newspapers and magazines.
5. Skill in outlining.

Revised Historical Viewpoints

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THE TARIFF ON THE EVE OF THE CIVIL WAR

Richard Hofstadter in a recent monograph seriously challenges the thesis of the Beards that conflict between the North and South over the tariff of 1857 and 1860 measurably contributed to the Civil War.¹ He declares that the real conflict at this time lay between the woolen manufacturers of the East and the wool growers of the West. Northern interests were indifferent to protection. The woolen manufacturers sought a "reduction in costs as a substitute for protection by scaling down the duties on their raw materials. This policy applied not only to wool but to Manila hemp, flax, raw silk, lead, tin, brass, hides, linseed and other articles. Whatever latent hostility may have existed [between the North and South] was kept from active expression by the admission of cheap raw wool free of duty."

In 1860 upward revisions affecting iron and wool chiefly were designed to attach Pennsylvania and the western states to the Republican Party. Hofstadter declares that the New York Chamber of Commerce opposed the Morrill Tariff (1860) and that northern commercial and financial capital opposed Lincoln's election. Manufacturers from Connecticut, Newark and New York City also opposed the Republican Party in that campaign.

If the votes and statements of congressional representatives of manufacturing constituencies are conceived to have any close relation to their interests, the majority of the manufacturers appear to have desired reduction in 1857. The example of the woolen manufacturers offers a clue to the strategy of this group states Hofstadter. Adversely affected by the tariff of 1846, they had the alternative of working for greater protection or lowering costs through reduced duties on their raw materials. In choosing the latter course, they chose to do parliamentary battle with the

¹ Richard Hofstadter, "The Tariff on the Eve of the Civil War," *American Historical Review*, 44 (October, 1938), 50-55.

Western wool growers rather than the Southern planters. Their satisfaction with the effect of the tariff of 1857 left them indifferent, or actually hostile, to any further changes in 1860. The majority of the votes in the Senate and the House of the Northern States, excepting Pennsylvania, were cast for the Hunter amendments in the 1857 tariff to reduce the duties on woolens and raw wools from 30 per cent each to 23 and 8 per cent respectively.

THE PURPOSE OF THE LEWIS AND CLARK EXPEDITION

Thwaites, Theodore Roosevelt, Beard, McMaster and others declare that the purpose of the Lewis and Clark expedition was to explore the Trans-Mississippi West for general scientific knowledge. A study of the original source materials on the subject: Jefferson's secret message to Congress of January 18, 1803, the correspondence of Jefferson, Lewis, Madison, and the debates in the Senate and House refute this belief.²

The expedition was designed to survey the fur trade resources along its course, across the Rockies to the Pacific and *thence to China* as a means of more easily circumventing British competition through Montreal and London. Such a fur trade policy was to supplement government Indian land policy east of the Mississippi. The expedition was to establish fur trading posts with the Indians. Congress was to acquaint the private traders in the Northwest Territory (along the Ohio) of the possibility of profit in such trade and route. This should induce them to abandon the fur trade in the cis-Mississippi region. To expedite withdrawals from the region east of the Mississippi the government would increase the number of its

² Ralph B. Guinness, "The Purpose of the Lewis and Clark Expedition," *Mississippi Valley Historical Review*, XX (June, 1933), 90-100.

fur-posts there (a policy begun under Washington), undersell the private traders, destroy their trade relations and influence with the Indians. If the fur trade were thus killed east of the Mississippi the Indians would be more tractable in ceding their lands to the federal government. Thus these lands would be open more easily to settlement and would be under American control for the establishment of forts for the protection of the Mississippi frontier against the British, French and Spanish governments and the Indian tribes. Thus the Lewis and Clark expedition was intended to develop the trans-Mississippi fur trade for private exploitations as an aid to the government's land and military policy east of that river.

The expedition began its journey in April, 1803, reaching St. Louis in September of that year. Winter quarters were set up there while Lewis was awaiting an early start in the spring of 1804. This was in advance of any knowledge of Livingston's negotiations to acquire part of the Louisiana Purchase and of purchase of the whole which was affected in May of 1803. Knowledge of the treaty of purchase from Napoleon did not reach Jefferson until July, 1803, when Lewis and Clark were already on their way to St. Louis.

The Northeastern representatives in Congress opposed the expedition, the appointment of Monroe, his instructions to aid Livingston in acquiring New Orleans and the Floridas, and the treaty of purchase. There is no evidence in the sources examined, as McMaster and Roosevelt contend, that the expedition was designed to explore the West for purposes of expansion. McMaster erroneously ascribes the fur trade purpose as a manoeuvre to conceal expansionist designs, while Roosevelt erroneously chides Jefferson for an after-thought of sending out in 1804 [*sic*] an expedition to explore territory after it had been acquired.

Columbus-Dreamer from Genoa¹

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SCENE I. COURT OF SPAIN

Ferdinand and Isabella are seated on their throne. Ladies-in-Waiting and court gentlemen wander in taking places near throne. A courtier enters, bows low to the king.

Courtier—Your Majesty, a man waits without who craves audience of thee immediately. He claims to have come a great distance and begs that thou receivest him.

Ferdinand—Why is this man so insistent?

Courtier—I know not, sire. He would tell me nothing save that he has come from far away Genoa to seek an audience with the king. Shall I bid him be gone upon his tiresome business?

Isabella—Methinks, since he has come thus far, 'twould be but courteous to hear him out. Mayhap we may hear of marvelous happenings in some foreign country.

Ferdinand—'Tis well said. Bid him enter and we will

(Continued on page 75)

¹ A dramatization especially suitable for junior high schools.

ILLUSTRATED SECTION

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THE SOCIAL STUDIES

FEBRUARY, 1941

*Edited by DANIEL C. KNOWLTON
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PARLIAMENTARY AND PARTY GOVERNMENT IN ENGLAND IN THE 17TH AND 18TH CENTURIES



The coffee houses began to be important as early as the middle of the 17th century, reaching the height of their popularity in the reign of Queen Anne. Here, where tea, coffee, and chocolate could be drunk and piquet and basset played, the best political and literary conversation was to be had. Often they were identified with particular political parties or groups of politicians. Note the furniture and furnishings.

PARLIAMENTARY AND PARTY GOVERNMENT IN ENGLAND IN THE 17TH AND 18TH CENTURIES



Courtesy of Metropolitan Museum of Art

"THE POLL"

This picture of voters taking the oath and recording their votes and the one below are two of a series of four satirical paintings by William Hogarth, occasioned by the election of 1754 on the eve of the French and Indian War. Hogarth was interested in directing attention to some of the existent evils but they are interesting revelations of the political processes involved. A one-legged and one-armed old soldier has just recorded his vote in spite of the protests of the bewigged advocate. The next voter is apparently a deaf imbecile, and behind him is an invalid wrapped in a blanket and carried to the booth by two supporters.

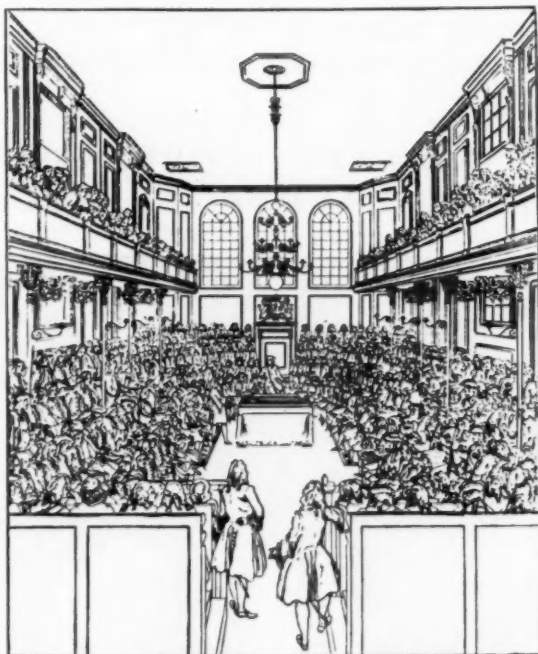


Courtesy of Metropolitan Museum of Art

"THE CANVASS"

A farmer voter is being presented with invitations to dinner at the rival headquarters of the candidates, the Crown Inn at the rear and the Royal Oak (left). The candidate is purchasing trinkets from a Jew to secure the favor of the ladies as a messenger brings him a letter addressed "Tim Parti-toole, Esq." Beside the inn-door a wooden lion is devouring a *fleur de lis*, a reference to the hostile state of affairs between France and England.

ND
PARLIAMENTARY AND PARTY GOVERNMENT IN ENGLAND
IN THE 17TH AND 18TH CENTURIES



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"THE BRITISH HOUSE OF COMMONS
IN 1741-42"

The seat of the speaker is at the north end. The benches to his right are occupied by members of the Government Party; the ministers occupy the front bench. To the speaker's left are the members of the opposition, whose leaders also occupy the seats on the front bench.



Courtesy Frick Art Reference Library

"INTERIOR OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS IN 1793"

William Pitt is delivering a speech and on the left in front of the second pillar is Charles James Fox.

PARLIAMENTARY AND PARTY GOVERNMENT IN ENGLAND IN THE 17TH AND 18TH CENTURIES



The use of the political caricature began to be extensive after the Revolution of 1688. In the reign of the Georges they mirrored much of the political warfare that was going on. In this cartoon of December, 1779, George III is represented as The Botching Tailor cutting his cloth to cover a button. The king is the central figure and beside him sits his Scottish assistant, Lord Bute. Lord North and his cabinet are looking on. Under the tailor's bench are the Bill of Rights, Magna Charta, Remonstrances, etc. cut into shreds and thrown away. The walls of the shop are ornamented with broadside ballads. A picture behind the king is a parody on the flight into Egypt and represents the king and his family on way "to Hanover."

hear the knave.

(Exit Courtier. Re-enters with Columbus who bows to king and Court.)

Columbus—Your Majesties, I beg your favor and kind consideration. My name is Columbus. I come from Genoa to seek thy aid in the greatest undertaking that this world has ever known. Doubtless many will think me mad, but it has ever been my dream to cross the unknown sea to find what wonders lie beyond.

(The Court look at one another in amazement and the king and queen lean forward in surprise.)

Ferdinand—Forsooth, fool, the world will believe thee mad, if thou followst out thy intention.

Columbus—Sire, I know the stories told of the sea and the horrors awaiting those who venture out beyond the horizon but I believe none of them.

Ferdinand—How canst thou know they are untrue?

Columbus—Only by my faith, Sire.

Ferdinand—Science believes the world flat. Knowest thou not that thou wouldst fall off when come to the edge?

Columbus—I have watched the ships out to sea since a small lad and I am convinced the world is round by the very position they take as they disappear over the horizon.

Ferdinand—*Thou* art sure, but whom couldst thou convince to go with thee?

Columbus—That, Sire, is but one of the many reasons why I am here today. I am convinced that had I ships and men I could discover a new way to India and riches by sailing westward on the sea. That is why I have come to thee.

Ferdinand—Thou art jesting if thou thinkest I would risk my men and money in any such undertaking. 'Twould be rank madness to attempt it. Thou wouldst lose everything including thy life. I could ask no men of mine to go, let alone give thee money to throw away. It is madness!

Columbus—But, sire—the fame that would be Spain's should I succeed! Surely it is worth the risk.

Ferdinand—Enough said. We have no money as it is. We certainly have none to spare on mad undertakings. Why dost thou not seek the help of thine own country but must come to bother us with thy pratings?

Columbus—(sadly)—They will hear none of it in mine own country. There, they war too much on each other to be interested. I was told that thee and thy Court were anxious to help any who might seek a new route to India which is so sorely needed.

Ferdinand—Columbus, we appreciate thy trust in us. Were it possible we would gladly help thee. As it is, we can do no more.

Columbus—Thank thee, Sire, for hearing me thus

far. Think of the glory awaiting those who first accomplish what I am dreaming of. Make not a hasty decision lest thou regret it in future.

(Bows himself out, downcast)

Isabella—Methinks there is something in what he says.

Ferdinand—Gadsooks, the man is mad. Money and ships for a journey over unknown seas to what possibly horrible end! We were fools to hear him out.

Isabella—I think not. He talketh not as a mad man but as one who is sure of what he thinks. Glory would be ours and riches too, could we be the first to discover the longed for passage.

Ferdinand—Forsooth, this is true but had I wanted to aid him I could not for I have not the money.

Isabella—So convinced am I that the man is right that I would gladly part with some of my many jewels to help him prove it.

Ferdinand—That of course is for thee to decide if thou thinkest the risk is worth it.

Isabella—I do. Call back the man and tell him that we have decided to help him.

Courtier exits, calling as he goes "Columbus! Columbus!"

Curtain.

SCENE II. CABIN OF COLUMBUS

Columbus is seated at table studying chart. Two sailors nearby are playing cards idly.

First Sailor—Twelve weeks today since we set sail and still no sign of the long desired land.

Second Sailor—Our position grows desperate, Sire. Today saw the last of our bread and the rats have eaten our flour. Unless we sight land soon, we starve.

First—Our fresh water is gone too, Sire. The barrels are empty but I dare not tell the others yet.

(Enter Mate)

Mate—Now must we pray,
For low the very stars are gone.

Brave Admiral, speak—what shall I say?

Columbus—Why, say, "Sail on! Sail on! And on!"
My men grow mutinous day by day;

My men grow ghastly wan and weak.

Mate—What shall I say, Brave Admiral, say
If we sight naught but seas at dawn?

Columbus—Why you shall say at break of day
Sail on! Sail on! Sail on!

Mate—Why, not even God would know
Should I and all my men fall dead.

These very winds forget their way,

For God from these dread seas is gone.

Now, speak, Brave Admiral, speak and say.

Columbus—Sail on! Sail on! Sail on and on!

Mate—This mad sea shows his teeth tonight.
He curls his lips, he lies in wait,

With lifted teeth, as if to bite.
 Brave Admiral, say but one good word;
 What shall we do when hope is gone?

Columbus—Sail on! Sail on! Sail on!

(Exit Mate)

Second Sailor—Sire, there is mischief afloat. I heard the men talking in the hold this morning.

First Sailor—They say that thou art determined to go on even if we starve and there is a threat of mutiny going around.

Columbus—Tut, tut, 'tis probably a threat and nothing more. These spineless criminals they gave me for sailors have not enough stamina to mutiny.

(Enter a terrified sailor followed by others.)

Sailor—Oh, Sire, save us! A huge sea-monster follows us and threatens to swamp our boat!

Columbus—Sea-monster! Hast thou not got over thy silly fears by this time? 'Tis probably nothing but a hungry whale.

Sailor—We have had enough of this uncertainty. We wish to turn back.

Columbus—After reaching thus far, 'twould be cowardice to go back. Besides where would we get provisions for such a journey?

Sailor—'Tis better to go back while we have some provisions rather than to go on until we starve.

(Sailors excitedly voice approval of this. The two faithful sailors take their places beside Columbus. He draws his sword.)

Columbus—I shall run my sword through the first one who makes a step to turn this ship from its course. Thou hast had faith in me thus far. 'Twere but sense to hold out a little longer. Death to the knave who says "Turn back!"

(The sailors are held at bay sullenly and finally go out one by one. Columbus takes his spy glass and looks out to sea. A sailor comes running in.)

Sailor—Sire, Sire! Our watchman hast sighted land. Come on deck and see!

(Columbus hastens off while shouts of sailors can be heard off stage.)

Curtain.

SCENE III. THE LANDING OF COLUMBUS

Enter Columbus with the banner of Spain followed by his sailors. They kneel in silent prayer. A crowd of savages come slowly on in surprise at the white men. They look curiously at the sailors and then they kneel at the feet of Columbus.

Columbus—God hath dealt generously with us. He brought us safely to India. These Indians have never seen white men before, so we must be far from the part visited by traders.

(A sailor who has been busy looking about holds up a handful of dust.)

Sailor—This *is* India, Sire. See, I have a handful of gold. It is to be had for the picking.

(The other crowd joyously about him. The Indians are busy examining Columbus, his clothes, banners, etc.)

Columbus—'Tis well not to look farther for the present. We have already been long upon the way. 'Twill be better to load our ships with fresh supplies and make haste back to Spain with our good news.

Sailor—But, Sire, how can we ever convince them that we are speaking truth? They will claim we are jesting in our madness.

Columbus—Mayhap we can persuade one or two of yon savages to go back with us that we may convince the Court we have indeed discovered a new route to India.

Sailor—Well spoken. That and the gold dust needs must persuade them.

Curtain.

SCENE IV. COURT OF SPAIN

Ferdinand and Isabella are seated on the throne. Court ladies and gentlemen.

Ferdinand—And so today we welcome home the great Columbus. See to it that all possible honors come to him.

Isabella—I am justly rewarded. They say he brings back a ship load of priceless treasures together with some of the native Indians he found on the shores.

Ferdinand—To think that we might have missed this chance. All honor goes to thee for thy faith, Isabella.

(Enter Courtier)

Courtier—Cristofer Columbo is arriving, Your Majesty.

(Enter Columbus borne on a litter. He alights and bows humbly to the King and Queen.)

Ferdinand—Welcome home, Columbus. We are glad to be the first to do thee honor for thy great undertaking.

Columbus—Sire, the honor is thine and to thy wife for her sympathy and faith. Without them I could have done nothing.

Isabella—But the courage was thine, Columbus. Was it not hard for thee out on the great ocean, not knowing whither thou wert going and with thy hungry men threatening mutiny if thou wouldst not turn back?

Columbus—"Twas, Your Majesty. None will ever know how sorely tried I was at times to return. But for your sweet faith I might have done so.

Now we can rejoice at the outcome for I have many wonders to present to you.

(He claps his hands and the savages enter overcome with awe at all they see. Ferdinand and Isabella examine them with curiosity. Columbus shows them the gold dust.)

Columbus—This is to be picked from the ground, Sire. I have much more in the hold of my ship, enough to make this kingdom the richest in the world.

Ferdinand—By my faith, I have never heard anything so marvelous. Sit thee down and give us the full history of thy trip for it is surpassing wonderful.

(Columbus seats himself at the foot of the throne and begins to tell of his adventure.)
Curtain.

SCENE V. PRISON

Columbus in chains. A faithful sailor sits near.

Columbus—Thus does glory die as quickly as it is born. One day we are acclaimed the greatest; the next we are cast aside to make way for someone else. Truly those who live and die in obscurity and never know the taste of fame are the happiest after all for they never learn how fickle a thing fortune is.

Sailor—No, Columbus, I think 'tis better to have had the fame. We know then the joys of reaching the heights and no one can take that from us.

Columbus—I wonder. For a little while Dame Fortune smiled upon me. I found 'tis true, not a new passage to India but that which in years to come will be a far greater find—a New World! Who can realize the possibilities that lie in a New World? Suppose the gold I found is only earth dust after all, who knows of the hidden riches to be discovered in years to come?

Sailor—Trust a while longer, Columbus. The tide will yet turn when they discover what you have done. Have faith and keep up hope for they may acclaim thee again in the days to come.

Columbus—No, my faithful one, old age cannot bear the disappointments that the young can jest about. These old limbs of mine do start to lag and I am weary of the struggle. I do feel that the end is not far off. Nor do I grieve that this is so. When we have come to the end of hope, we are ready to pass on to a chance for better things. I could die happy could I but look into the future just a little way and see what it holds for the land I found.

Sailor—Since it has not brought the riches all desired, I am afraid thy land is doomed to barren-

ness, Sire. The sailors will look elsewhere for the route to India.

Columbus—If I could be sure. But I love the land even though it has brought me ruin. A drink, my faithful friend. Thou art all I have remaining to me.

(Sailor goes for drink and Spirits of History and Good Citizenship come in.)

History—Be of good cheer, Columbus. We, the Spirits of History and Good Citizenship have come to gladden your last hours with a wondrous vision.

Good Citizenship—We heard you regret that you had not discovered that which you sought, but rest in peace, Columbus. That which you did discover is destined in years to come to be the greatest country yet upon the earth!

History—Men will acclaim it throughout the world. My archives show it to be a land rolling in wealth and opportunities for rich and poor alike.

Good Citizenship—Oppressed peoples from over the world will find a haven there. The government will be a great Democracy, existent not for tyranny and self-advancement but that all may prosper and find a chance for happiness. All shall be represented and have part equally in this government.

Columbus—You give me cheer, friends, and give me hope that I have not lived in vain. Is it indeed true what you have just related to me?

History—My archives never fail. It is given to me to know all history, past and future. This country of which I speak, the New America, will far o'er shadow any other land.

Good Citizenship—But not alone in size, Columbus. That indeed would be but poor fame. Far and wide, the justice of its laws, the freedom of its people, the equal opportunity for all will resound its fame to all eternity. People will no longer live afraid for what they believe but will stand out fearlessly for the right. Great wars will come but the United States will conquer because its laws and principles are based on justice and equality.

History—Your name shall not be forgotten. Columbus. Everywhere History will acclaim you for your great courage which made the discovery of this mighty nation possible. You shall be known to every school child in the land.

Columbus—Thank you, kind friends. My heart and mind are now at peace. I die happy, knowing that I have not lived in vain. (Dies)

History and Good Citizenship—Farewell, Columbus. Rest in peace.

(Sailor returns and weeps over body of Columbus.)

Curtain.

War and Medicine

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Now that war threatens to be our manifest destiny, we should inquire how humane and healthful that war may be. How refined? Who will alleviate the suffering? What are our chances of survival, mutilation, and death? While pacifists have been trying to prevent war, the laws for humanizing war have slipped so that the circumstances now are worse than before 1914.

Technical improvements, national conscription, and mass battles altered war technique in the middle of the nineteenth century and demonstrated the desirability of limiting barbarism. The Geneva Convention of August 1864 laid down rules for aiding the sick and wounded in the battlefield. At the Hague Peace Conference of 1899 the Convention was also applied to maritime warfare after Britain had withdrawn her opposition. Hospital ships were declared inviolable. Thirty-five nations adhered to the clarifying convention of 1906 which stated that all ambulances, military hospitals, their staffs and chaplains, were to be "respected and protected under all circumstances." The Red Cross became the required insignia of humanity. Hague rules also prohibited the use of poison gas, arms, projectiles such as expanding bullets, or other material which would cause "superfluous" injury. The Washington Conference of 1922 once again outlawed "poison or poisoned arms," including asphyxiating gases. The Geneva Protocol (1925) banned germ warfare. The last Convention, that of Geneva, July 1929, also protected aviators on charitable missions, recognized volunteer aid societies as auxiliary to the armies' medical and sanitary service, and agreed to the repatriation of the gravely sick and wounded.

Aerial warfare and mechanized armies have affected vitally the armies' medical servants. Medical units at the front still remain under the dubious protection of the Red Cross, but lightning offensives endanger these units and even base hospitals. Unfortunately, the conventions apply primarily to the armies' sick and wounded in the field, not to those in the rear of civilians. Hospital units in towns bombed from the air cannot rely on a Red Cross to escape extensive gas or incendiary attacks. Air raids and subsequent disorganization in the rear dislocate medical service.

There is a pressing need for revision and a single convention of such laws of war, in spite of the fact that nations may prevent, as Japan has done, a third power from supplying medicine to cities under attack. Many have advocated an international agree-

ment for hospital districts and neutral, isolation areas for wounded and non-belligerents. Such were proposed as early as 1870 by Henri Dunant, promoter of the Red Cross, and by the Pact of Monaco in 1934. Such a step was approved by the International Congress of Military Medicine whose Medico-Legal Commission was an outgrowth of a meeting called by Prince Louis II of Monaco, February 1934. Some experts have urged that all factories manufacturing dressings, serums, medical instruments, etc., should be protected as are these finished articles when stored in hospitals. Others want these rules to apply automatically to civil wars and wars not officially declared. Difficulties and subtleties always arise when deciding whether humane considerations harm an army's power, e.g., a medical officer may be respected when treating gas victims, but not when helping to protect against gas. Then too, in spite of traditional protests against innovations (whether gunpowder, cannon, or gas), new weapons will always be adopted.

If peace or laws fail us we must turn for hope to military sanitation, pharmacy, medicine, and surgery. It is their job to prevent unnecessary human waste and return a larger percentage of us to the firing line—so long as the rest of the army is not hindered. It is a far cry from the army physicians of Egypt and Babylonia, Homer's thirty hospital ships, and Xenophon's eight surgeons for his famous army of ten thousand to the International Congress of Military Medicine which began in 1921 to collect, standardize, and codify the lessons of the World War.

Armies throughout the Middle Ages were without surgical assistance. Regimental surgeons appeared in English forces in the seventeenth century with the same rank as chaplains. About 1750 the Prussian army surgeon ranked just above the drummer and beneath a chaplain; since he was a barber's apprentice, he also had to shave the officers. Light field hospitals were in use by 1850. Our Civil War and the Franco-Prussian war of 1870 fully demonstrated the necessity of a mobile, unified medical corps. Congress in March 1864 constituted a uniform ambulance service for the Northern soldiers. A medical staff with medico-military titles (e.g. Surgeon-General) grew up.

In former times generals like Napoleon cared very little about diseases and wounds. It is now more fully recognized that medicine and sanitation are closely related to army strength and morale. Most nations realize that if we are not to lapse into barbarism,

the medical corps must be as specialized and technically perfect as the soldiers, especially trained and protected in their management of hospitals and sanitary materials, and permitted the use of words which the rest of the army doesn't understand.

The achievements of military medicine have been remarkable. Apparently after every modern war great progress has been made in surgery and preventive medicine. Soldiers and civilians owe much to men like Ambrose Paré who spread the use of ligatures to prevent hemorrhage, John Hunter who helped to raise surgery to a respectable profession, Baron Larrey, Napoleon's surgeon-general who accompanied twenty-six expeditions in three continents, Walter Reed for his work in yellow fever, Ronald Ross who studied parasitic diseases, and to Jonathan Letterman, the great sanitary organizer who helped to keep the Army of the Potomac in fighting trim.

The Crimean War made belligerents look more seriously upon disease as the greatest enemy. Disease deaths in our Civil War were double those of battle deaths. But now the odds are two to one that you will die from battle wounds because of the army's work in controlling infectious or insect-borne diseases. While the vitamin-deficient Japanese momentarily suffered from beri-beri in the Russo-Japanese War, the Russians fought gallantly against yellow fever. Vaccine was successfully tested when American troops were concentrated on the Mexican border. In the Philippines dysentery, malaria, beri-beri, and typhoid fever were curbed. De-lousing units are established to control epidemic typhus. On enlistment, our soldiers are immunized against typhoid and small pox. Our army lost only 232 men from typhoid fever in the World War; no cases were recorded in the army in 1936 and 1937. The problems of control remain tremendous; malaria may still be an impediment to armies. But Italians in the Ethiopian campaign were effectively protected by a strict sanitary organization from the plagues which beset the Abyssinians. The Japanese, who have devised special hospital centers to keep their maimed soldiers off Japanese streets, have the abnormal total of fifteen per cent of their men in the medical department which, curiously, is also responsible for supplying the army's water.

The World War was a great laboratory of experience and human vivisection. The period was not one of the great discoveries, but many things left unstudied in peace time were faced. Advances were made in knowledge about gas gangrene, psychiatry, facial repair, anesthesia, general surgery, fractures, infected wounds, and diaphragmatic hernia (which will probably increase along with machine guns). The work of military surgeons is always a constant adaptation between technical principles and the force of circumstances. During the early part of the war, the dreaded phrase "Bundle up and despatch" was

heard too frequently. The maimed, without much very necessary immediate attention, were sent as far back as possible so as not to demoralize the new soldiers coming up. Urgent surgical care increased as armies dug in for a war of position. In a war of position and fairly steady lines, the losses by wounds will be greater, and the artillery will inflict more casualties than in a war of movement. About two-thirds of all wounds will affect the limbs, with our heads and necks next in order. However, chances of recovering from gunshot wounds are almost twice as good as they were during the Civil War.

Once in the army our chances are three to one that we remain effective. Forty to fifty per cent of us who must die can die immediately from wounds in vital parts. About twenty per cent are likely to suffer from fractures which require special and tedious attention. Don't get hit in the stomach, but if you do just hope military surgeons are illogical enough not to put you in the fourth class of urgency because of time and personnel required for proper care. Every wound from projectiles is infected six hours later. You can therefore be thankful that soon after 1914 it was decided that gunshot wounds (especially those made by bursting shells which account for eighty-five per cent of all such wounds) were not self-sterilized by the shot. Cold bayonets will cause only 0.3% of our wounds.

Out of the war came what was almost a new, co-operative science of the care of the mouth, teeth, and jaws, and the dentist and dental surgeon were hailed as essential adjuncts to armies. Before 1914 only the Germans saw the need of a field dental service. Because of more thorough dental care, the French army was able to add about 230,000 fighters to its ranks. In trench war, about fifteen per cent of all lesions will probably be head wounds. The membrane bones which bear the upper teeth are most vulnerable, consequently we can be happy that dental surgeons learned more about stomatology. And as basic to our fighting health, each army has now decided with great variety how many teeth one needs for proper mastication. Efforts are also being made to standardize the quality of foods and beverages supplied to the soldier so that at least the armies' diet will be sufficient. Records of dental service will be helpful in identifying bodies.

The medical service was also faced by the new and complex problems of chemical warfare. Without calculating the destructive improvements made since 1918 in suffocants, irritants, and vesicants, about one out of five of us will be gassed wounded and require speedy removal from the field. Judged by suffering inflicted at time of injury, permanent effects, or percentages of deaths to total wounded, gas may not be "unnecessarily cruel," but Americans continue to think so because Germans first used it successfully.

If wounded by gas, you have twelve times more chances for living than if wounded by other weapons. The problem has risen whether "disintoxicating" stations should be protected by the Red Cross or be considered merely as troop equipment. The German soldier carries chloride of lime powder so he can decontaminate himself of mustard gas. Probably, only the Russian army supplies its smaller units with decontaminating equipment; France had a specialized organization for treatment of gassed wounded. Some armies will try to rely on mustard gas-proof cloth. The Italian Chemico-Pharmaceutical Institute, a research center that also provides medical supplies, is studying means of protection from and cure of destructive chemicals.

By careful administration, rigid discipline, and chemical prophylaxis, armies have tried also to control venereal diseases which are especially inconvenient in war time. There began a downward trend of such disease in our army before the War, but since 1933, possibly because of many recruits from a less disciplined population, the trend has been unfavorable.

Indeed, the medical service must know nearly everything. Studies have been made of the efficiency of the medical service in mountain warfare which is likely to increase because of improved mechanization. Offensive and defensive actions are generally isolated in the mountains, are less intense but longer in duration. In the Italian army, mountain battle losses fluctuated between ten and twelve per cent; out of every hundred wounded, forty were able to reach medical posts by themselves. Although the wounded are less than in field warfare, we should hope for more stretcher-bearers or cable cars because of the complicated obstacles of mountain strategy. Army doctors must know about diseases resulting from the terrain, altitude, and climate. Disturbing emotions, the effects of fatigue, palpitation, "air hunger," and "mountain sickness" are more to be feared in low temperature.

Medical inspection will no doubt weed out about one-third of us in the physical prime of life as not hardy enough to fight. Since there are about 480 different branches of specialized work in the army, doctors and psychologists may do further work in vocational selection. Unless it is solely a naval war, you have better chances of death in these army branches in the order named: Infantry (including machine gunners), Signal, Air, Engineer, Tank, Artillery, Medical, Quartermaster, and Ordnance. Military censors have not yet said much about this war's mental and physical casualties. But we do know the terrifying retreat of Dunkerque has produced among sturdy soldiers many disastrous mental symptoms—hysterical paralysis and fits, loss of memory, etc.

Before we entered World War I, 589 doctors were attached to the army; later, 38,000 took care of the army and navy. Authorized enlisted strength in the Medical Department is over 8,000, but this may be insufficient and many of the civilian personnel get little military training. A Reserve Corps of 23,000 doctors has been built up. Every nation has realized the increasing importance of nurse and volunteer auxiliaries. National societies such as the Red Cross have been learning more about gas attacks. About 42,000 nurses are in the American Red Cross Nurses' Reserve, and could be used in time of war. The army also started a school of nursing, October 1921.

Reserves of supplies are being accumulated. Army specifications for strength, purity, etc., cover over 1,000 items of medical supply. Efforts have been made to standardize sanitary materials. Our Army Medical Center has a laboratory which could meet the health needs of a general mobilization. Steps have been taken, in connection with the possibility of western hemisphere defense, to prepare sufficient vaccines for our soldiers in the tropics. At Edgewood Arsenal, the medical aspects of chemical warfare are being studied. One of the most original units was the Medical Field Service School at Carlisle, Pennsylvania, which has been praised by foreign observers. Field equipment, all of which has been remodeled since 1918, is being constantly tested. Field ambulances have been designed to include built-in ventilation and smoother riding qualities.

Out of war experience grew the School of Aviation Medicine which studies the principles and techniques of tests, and the physical and psychological care of aviators. There have been problems of particular importance such as the development of methods for protecting eyes of pilots from glare and harmful radiation. The new Research Laboratory at Wright Field has under consideration eighty projects pertaining to medical aviation. During 1937, studies were made on the effect of acceleration on man and the occurrence of "bends" in aviators because of rapid changes in air pressure. Since it has a direct bearing on the technique of camouflage, the army's School of Aviation Medicine at Randolph Field recently announced that it was looking for potential flyers who are color-blind.

One of the greatest problems facing military medicine must be solved or men in the army are most likely to die from respiratory diseases such as influenza or pneumonia which are not easily prevented or controlled. (What would have happened to our mobilization had the flu epidemic reached us in 1917 rather than in the autumn of 1918?) It has been claimed that no army today, in spite of aerial ambulances or Moscow's nurses trained with parachutes, has really efficient means of assembling and evacuating the gravely wounded from the field. War

wounds are urgent, but because of long range guns and shifting lines, the advance medical unit may have to be at least ten to fifteen miles from the firing lines. The gravity of wounds may become worse with the increased use of automatic arms. Many commonly used antiseptics are often difficult to obtain and preserve in front-line emergency posts as the Spaniards discovered; the use of anesthetic and analgesic agents presents many knotty problems. One may also suspect that our fellow soldiers' mouths, jaws, and teeth will still be unsatisfactory.

We can only hope that the military medical man is keenly alive to the changing rules, tactics, and instruments of war. These prospects of a humane, "healthful" war may provoke cynicism. But whatever rules remain and the Congress of Military Medicine, which met in Washington in May, 1939, should attract our last desperate consideration. One should be particularly anxious that the Congress remain international in trying to keep up with improved destruction and maintain its legitimate pride in its very back-handed boon to both friendly and hostile mankind.

Motion Picture Department

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A DIRECTOR OF VISUAL INSTRUCTION CAN HELP A SOCIAL STUDIES TEACHER

The teacher who is alert to progress in the field of communicating ideas sees a wide variety of teaching materials which he can utilize in his program. However, when an individual teacher attempts to proceed entirely "on his own" in procuring and utilizing these materials for his classes, he is almost sure to meet with a great many obstacles and annoying details which impede his work. For example, if a teacher wishes to obtain a motion picture for his classwork, he may find that special forms are needed on which to place his order, and the procuring of these may delay the securing of the material. Rental fees are charged by some distributors, while others supply the same film without fees. Distant distributors may be patronized because the teacher is not aware that nearer distributors also have the film. It may even be that a colleague in the school building is using the desired film, but this information is not known to the teacher sending in the request. The catalogue description may be inadequate and misrepresent the film, thus disappointing the teacher, while later conversation reveals that some other teacher in the building has been disappointed by the same film before, but has made no evaluation available.

If the teacher does get the film as he had planned, other irritating problems may face him. The projection equipment may not work properly, and being unfamiliar with its operation, he may not be able to correct even a small difficulty. The projector may need cleaning if film damage is to be avoided, it may be getting too much or not enough oil, adequate extension cords will probably be difficult to locate, a suitable screen may not be available, the film splicing outfit may lack cement, the lamp may burn out when no replacement is at hand, or some other dis-

concerting detail may face the teacher, thus making the attempt to use a motion picture a discouraging experience.

If the film and the projector work properly, there are still other questions which the teacher working as an individual will have to answer through the difficult process of trial and error. For example, what techniques have been evolved which are usually satisfactory in teaching with films? How much time should be spent in preparation before seeing the film? Is it a good practice to show the film more than once? What activities should follow the showing?

Much of this confusion which exists when the individual teacher must do all the work can be resolved by delegating to one person the responsibility for assisting teachers in the use of visual materials. We may call this person a "Director of Visual Instruction." The director can acquaint himself with the requirements of the position and help avoid the useless repetition of errors which occur when there is no coördination of effort. A wide-awake administrator will appoint such a director for his school system. Alert teachers will suggest to administrators that such a director can offer useful services.

What qualifications must a teacher have to fill this position? The teacher must, of course, have a special interest in the use of visual materials. Preferably, he should have had some professional training in this field. If he knows something about photography, this information should help him to recognize good pictorial material. The director must have a broad outlook on curriculum organization. He must see the contributions which can be made by all subject-matter fields and suggest materials which will help all teachers to do their jobs better. He must have a well-thought-out philosophy of education so that he does not look at his job as merely that of providing ma-

terials, but rather he must see his task as that of providing materials which will help develop a truly educated person.

What will the duties of a Director of Visual Instruction be? The answer to this question will be modified to a large extent by the local school situation, but the following duties would almost surely come under his supervision:

1. He would help to acquaint the teachers with kinds and sources of teaching materials which they would be able to use in their work. A collection of catalogues from film libraries, museums, and other agencies should be gathered and made available. These references should be located in a central office where they may be used by all the teachers. Suggestions about new teaching materials may be circulated among members of the instructional staff.
2. He would help the teacher procure the materials. The director will be acquainted with the proper methods of ordering films, and can organize plans for the cooperative use of the materials before an order is sent.
3. He would help the teachers with the mechanics of projection. He can see that the projection equipment is in good condition, and supervise the purchase of new equipment when the need for it is clear. He can also see that rooms are made suitable for the use of projected material.
4. He would suggest techniques of utilization which would fit the teacher and the classroom situation. The director might do this by arranging for demonstrations of materials and by seeing that professional advice is made available to the staff.
5. He would organize a staff of student assistants to help with many of the duties such as setting up and removing equipment in classrooms, operating the projectors, distributing and collecting materials, and the like.
6. He would stimulate the production and use of local teaching materials. Schools are more and more realizing that local resources which the community offers are among the most important teaching materials that can be found.
7. He would build up a store of information, and his office would act as a clearing house to serve the teaching staff when problems of teaching materials confronted them. Much time would be saved, and teaching efficiency would be improved by having this service available to the staff.

The time which should be allotted to the Director of Visual Instruction for carrying out these duties would of course depend upon the size of the school staff and upon the number of students. For a school having a staff of forty teachers, the Director of Visual Instruction might be given a half day for carrying out his duties. During the other half of the school

day he would teach regular classes, and thus would not lose direct touch with the students whom his services are finally to benefit. It is quite obvious that a part-time clerical assistant is virtually a necessity in the program.

While the discussion in this article has been limited to what a Director of Visual Instruction can do to help teachers use projected material, it must certainly seem clear that other teaching aids would be included in his concern. Educational broadcasts, transcriptions, excursions, and other aids to learning, need the organization which a specialist can offer.

When schools realize the necessity of providing assistance to teachers in the use of a wide variety of instructional materials and employ properly qualified directors, they can begin to realize the potential contributions which these materials can make to education.

NEWS NOTES

The News Letter is a four-page publication bringing information to the teacher about the radio, the press, and the motion picture. It is published monthly by the Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio. Each issue contains a feature article and a series of news notes on happenings in the three fields of communication with which it deals. The publication is sent free of charge to educators who wish to be placed on the mailing list. Write to Edgar Dale at the above address.

The following new teaching films in the social studies field have recently been released. The films may be purchased from the producers, or in most cases, they may be procured from the film distributors with whom schools customarily deal.

Erpi Classroom Films:	People of Hawaii
Early Settlers of New England	Children of China
Arteries of the City	People of China—
City Water Supply	Farmers of Forty Centuries
The Policeman	Eastman Teaching Films:
Argentina (People of Buenos Aires)	Jugoslavia
Peru (Indians of the Mountains)	Bulgaria
Brazil (People of the Plantations)	Glimpses of the Near East
Chile (People of the Country Estates)	Academic Film Company:
	Our Monroe Doctrine
	Our Constitution

Film News is a monthly publication of interest to those educators who wish to know the most recent happenings in the educational film world. The publisher is the American Film Center, 95 Rockefeller Plaza, New York City, and the subscription price is \$1 per year.

The proceedings of the Second Conference on Educational Film Production held at The Ohio State University, November 19-20, 1940, are now available. Send \$1.25 for the 125-page mimeographed book to Edgar Dale, Bureau of Educational Research, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

An overwhelming vote of confidence in modern educational methods and techniques was given by the public in a survey recently conducted by Dr. George Gallup for the National Education Association. In answer to the question "Do you think young people today are getting a better education in school than their parents got?" Eighty-five per cent of the population answered "Yes—better," 6 per cent answered "About the same," and 7 per cent answered "No—poorer." Two per cent had no opinion.

The Twelfth Institute for Education by Radio, the nation-wide conference of broadcasters and educators, meeting under the auspices of Ohio State University, will be held at the Deshler-Wallick Hotel, Columbus, Ohio, Monday through Wednesday, May 5-7, 1941. In connection with this Institute, there will be held the Fifth American Exhibition of Recordings of Educational Radio Programs. Specifications and entry blanks will be available January 1, 1941. The closing date for the entries is March 15, 1941. For information or entry blanks write I. Keith Tyler, Institute for Education by Radio, Ohio State University.

The winter meeting of the Department of Visual Instruction of the National Education Association will be held on February 24, 25, and 26, in Atlantic City at the Hotel Traymore. Membership in the Department is \$2, and this fee includes a year's subscription to the *Educational Screen*. Send your dues to

the secretary-treasurer, Mr. Ward C. Bowen, State Education Department, Albany, N.Y.

Building America is a photographic magazine issued monthly by the Society for Curriculum Study for use in the schools. Each issue consists of a study unit presenting pictorially some problem or aspect of American life. It provides social studies classes in junior and senior high schools with a much-needed type of source materials.

If the social studies teacher were to nominate a list of the "ten best" films of the year 1940 in terms of the contributions which they made toward a better understanding of human relationships, he would certainly include many from the following list. Furthermore, at least half of these films would also be found in any list chosen on the basis of pure entertainment, thus indicating that the entertainment and educational aspects of films are often complimentary to each other.

Grapes of Wrath
The Howards of Virginia
Dr. Ehrlich's Magic Bullet
Our Town

The Mortal Storm
Abe Lincoln in Illinois
The Great McGinty
The Long Voyage Home
The Great Dictator
Pastor Hall

As the "ten worst" of the year, reviewer Theodore Strauss of the *New York Times* suggests the following films. Note that few films on this list made any pretense of offering more than entertainment.

The Way of All Flesh
Untamed
One Million B.C.
South of Pago-Pago
The Blue Bird

I Take This Woman
Moon Over Burma
Bitter Sweet
Little Men
Turnabout

News and Comment

MORRIS WOLF

Head, Department of Social Studies, Girard College, Philadelphia

BENEVOLENT FINANCE CAPITALISM

Interpretations of affairs by William Allen White, noted editor of the *Emporia Gazette*, rarely fail to challenge the minds of his fellow citizens. In "Thoughts After the Election," the leading article of the December issue (Winter 1941) of *The Yale Review*, Mr. White looked at the Roosevelt election against the back drop of history and saw it as part of a revolutionary movement which reached far beyond our shores and which started many decades ago.

Mr. White recalled that after the Civil War industry grew so big that industrialists began to find it too difficult to finance their operations as they had been accustomed to doing and turned to the financiers for capital. By 1900 finance capitalism was displacing industrial capitalism, as it in turn had displaced merchant capitalism nearly a century earlier.

The evils accompanying each of these changes evoked cries for reform. The Greenbackers, the Farmers' Alliance and the Populists remind us of the criticisms leveled against industrial capitalism after

the Civil War and of the demands for reform which found their most stirring voice in William Jennings Bryan. Theodore Roosevelt, similarly, pointed dramatically to the injuries being inflicted by finance capitalism upon the public welfare and laid the foundation upon which, through the law, Woodrow Wilson imposed a benevolent check upon it. The panic of 1929 took the fight out of finance capitalism and infused strength into "government as an agency of human welfare."

During this time a similar movement was going on in Europe. But whereas with us changes were made peaceably, there they were made by revolution. In the United States the abundance of natural resources, and skill and technology made a peaceful reform possible. Among the European nations one or the other of these essentials to peaceful change was lacking. Russia, without skill and technology, could not get away from the economics of scarcity and had recourse, in the search for greater economic equality, to a revolution designed to become communistic. Germany and Italy, lacking necessary natural resources, similarly sought greater economic equality through revolution. In their economy of scarcity, Hitler, Mussolini, and Stalin leveled down in order to secure greater economic equality for their citizens. They could not hope to establish an economy of abundance. We can provide greater economic equality by leveling up, and not down.

In many of the New Deal's necessarily hurried measures of economic reform Mr. White saw the wrong approach. Mr. Roosevelt's legislation for industry, for agriculture, and for labor aimed to level down, as if ours were an economy of scarcity. We Americans, unlike Europeans, believe we have enough to go around. We need only to find out how to make it do so. It is this belief which has made our revolution bloodless.

What we demand is more equitable distribution. This our government has tried to achieve by legislation which controls capitalism so that its fruits will be more widely distributed. Government has even tried to inoculate capitalism with the serum of social responsibility. Much reform in government itself has had such economic reform in view, as is illustrated by the initiative, referendum, recall, popular election of senators, and new forms of local government. Such peaceful reform seems, on the whole, to have been accomplished already in such countries as the Scandinavian and in Great Britain.

But of three things we may be sure in this country, said Mr. White. First, the American people are now agreed that capital must be controlled and regulated in the public interest and wealth must be shared through income and inheritance taxes which finance social services of our governments. Second, opposition is fading and the right of labor to organize freely and to bargain collectively is being recognized. Labor

has a right to decent hours, wages, and conditions of employment for all workers and a right to security against unemployment and old age. Third, government should finance such improvements as roads, flood control, and water-power development. Mr. Roosevelt's reelection was an endorsement, in Mr. White's opinion, of this peaceful, revolutionary reform. The large minority vote, however, may be a warning that Mr. Roosevelt must not go too fast "in our march towards the benevolent socialization of finance capitalism."

SHAYS' REBELLION

The uprising of the poverty- and debt-ridden farmers of Massachusetts, in the summer of 1786, who saw their homes and freedom devoured by the foreclosures, and debtor's prisons conjured up by the moneyed men and their lawyers, receives short notice in our textbooks. Captain Shays was a rather ineffectual army officer who led a fight for human rights when they were threatened by the rights of property. He failed. Or, did he? Dr. Arthur E. Morgan, biographer of Edward Bellamy whose utopian picture in *Looking Backward* is so well known, suggested the lasting consequences of Shays' Rebellion in a brief article on "An Early American Social Revolt" in the *Survey Graphic* for December.

Shays failed, but Governor Bowdoin, who sent the state troops against him, lost the next election to John Hancock who, wealthy though he was, sided with the poorer people. It was Hancock who then presided over the state convention called to ratify the new national Constitution and who refused to support ratification until the Constitution guaranteed personal and social rights to the common man. Thus, says Dr. Morgan, the violent effort to secure rights for the common people which failed in 1786 led to their peaceful attainment a few years later in the Bill of Rights incorporated in the first ten amendments to the Constitution.

This story itself interested Edward Bellamy who pictured the life of the people in western Massachusetts in the 1780's in his account of Shays' Rebellion in *The Duke of Stockbridge*. Dr. Morgan's description of conditions after the Revolution and his interpretation of the bearing of Shays' Rebellion upon the Constitution will stir up the minds of young students of our history. His account throws light upon the American crisis of the 1780's and invites comparisons with the present world crisis.

CIVIC OBJECTIVES

Teachers will care to have a permanent record of the objectives of civic responsibility formulated in the 1938 N.E.A. *Report of the Educational Policies Commission*. Instruction in citizenship in the schools, so far, is directly designed to achieve only a few of

them. Are they all valid objectives for the schools? If so, how can they be attained?

1. Social justice: citizens alive to the unwarrantable inequalities of opportunity and circumstance in the nation.
2. Social activity: citizens eager to repair conditions harmful to the general welfare.
3. Social understanding, both of social processes and of social institutions and agencies.
4. Critical judgment, especially in these days of continuous propaganda from within and without the country.
5. Tolerance: respect for honest differences in opinion.
6. Conservation: of human as well as of natural resources.
7. Social applications of science: citizens who see science as a great agency for promoting human welfare.
8. World citizenship: recognition of mankind as a fellowship—a world community of men.
9. Law observance.
10. Economic literacy.
11. Political citizenship: citizens who freely and uniformly perform the duties of citizenship.
12. Devotion to democracy: citizens with faith in and loyalty to the ideals of democracy.

PRACTICING DEMOCRACY

Under the title, "Democracy in the High Schools: How Achieved?" *The High School Journal* for December presented six examples taken from *Learning the Ways of Democracy: A Case Book of Civic Education* which was recently published by the Educational Policies Commission. The examples showed six different interpretations of how to achieve democracy effectively in the school: by having the principal decide what goals and procedures to pursue, by the use of a greatly varied activity program, by pupil-teacher coöperation in planning the work of the school, by reducing interference with student freedom almost to the vanishing point, by pursuing all possible projects for serving the school and the community through group action and shared responsibilities, and by seeking for those democratic ways of behaving which fit the maturity and ability of the pupils.

In each case the principal, a teacher, a student, and a citizen stated their opinion of the school and its procedure. And, in each case, members of the staff that made the study asked penetrating questions which furnish a starting place for criticizing and judging these schools as exemplars of democratic education. For those to whom the larger publication of the Educational Policies Commission is not available, this article will be suggestive and helpful.

HIGH SCHOOL COURSES

Dr. N. E. Bingham, science teacher at Lincoln School, Teachers College, Columbia University, described a course for the ninth grade which integrated social problems and science, in the December number of *The Clearing House*. The course, "Maturity in Urban Living," was worked out by teachers of social science, household arts, science, physical education, and nursing, and has been used successfully with four classes.

The problems studied included health, interdependence of city and rural life, the machine as worker, clothing, housing, food, recreation, and current happenings. These matters came up in many classrooms, and the teachers became convinced that the various lines of work should be combined into a study of the basic problems of individuals and the community. The course was framed in terms of adolescent needs, physical and intellectual, emotional and social. Dr. Bingham presented various details of the course and gave the reasons for believing that it met the needs of pupils. Those in search of new ways to organize material will find this Lincoln School course suggestive.

T. E. and W. G. Sullenger of the University of Omaha made a very instructive report, in the December 14 issue of *School and Society*, on "The Status of Sociology in Secondary Schools." Replies to their inquiries were received from high schools in every state in the Union and from small-town as well as large city schools. They reported a definite recognition of the social studies as the core of the secondary school curriculum and a recognition of the importance of social research.

Of all the schools that replied, ninety-eight per cent offered a course in social problems or sociology to their seniors or, sometimes, to their juniors, but never to lower classes. Only one per cent of these schools were not using a textbook of some kind, while at the same time all were making use of current materials of various sorts such as government reports, newspapers, pamphlets, and source books.

The project method and class-discussion methods seemed to predominate. Materials, in nine-tenths of the schools, were organized into units, varying in number from five to nine for a term's work. All but four per cent of the schools gave the course for but one semester, and these concentrated on social problems.

Students, generally, were required to report on readings, to make investigations and report on them orally or in writing, and to carry out committee or class-group projects, in addition to studying materials in the textbook. Teachers favored a textbook of five or six units, with definite procedures outlined, with bibliographies, and with suggested problems for study which could be adjusted to local needs. In

general, workbooks were not used, although teachers did ask for a syllabus to accompany the textbook. This report is very useful to all teachers and will be welcomed no less by the makers of textbooks.

ANNOYING HABITS OF TEACHERS

Joseph E. Moore of the George Peabody College for Teachers (Nashville, Tenn.) set forth the results of a study of "Annoying Habits of High School Teachers," in the November number of the *Peabody Journal of Education*. Although not extensive, this investigation among ninety seniors in four small high schools is enlightening. As many as 346 annoying habits were reported. Traits of teacher behavior and attitude were more annoying than those of personal appearance and classroom procedure. Girls found more annoying habits than did boys, and women teachers had more of them than did the men. Women teachers, however, far outnumbered men in the schools studied.

Most frequently mentioned were habits of having favorites, getting off the subject, talking too much, walking the floor, waiting too long before making assignments, being too dictatorial, and flirting. As inconclusive as this little study may be, Professor Moore's catalog of teacher traits which students condemn holds up a mirror into which a teacher may look with profit even if it is not his reflection he sees there.

AID TO LATIN AMERICA

The December and January issues of the *Congressional Digest* studied the question of "U.S. Aid to Latin-American." In December the subject of study was "Financial Aid to Latin-America." It was prefaced by an account, informative and broad in scope, of the history, the peoples, the governments, and the areas and products of the republics. Their relations with the United States were described at length, including the Pan-American Union, various aspects of trade relations, and the recent Havana Conference. In conclusion there was offered a pro and con discussion, by leading Congressmen, of the question, "Will Loans by the United States Export-Import Bank be a Real Aid to Latin-American Economy?"

In similar fashion, in January, the subject of "Military Aid to Latin-America," was studied. For general information as well as for reference, "U.S. Aid to Latin-America" is helpful for the classroom.

PRIMITIVE AMERICAN ANIMALS

The La Brea Pits near Los Angeles are famous for their yield of bones of animals that had been caught in the tarry trap at the end of the Ice Age. Edwin H. Colbert, paleontologist and assistant curator at the American Museum of Natural History in New York City, wrote a fascinating little story about it in the December number of *Natural History*. "The Tar Pit

Tiger" rebuilds the scene of animal life in southern California, when camels, tigers, tapirs, and mammoths roamed our southwest.

Appended to it is a diagrammatic picture, by Mr. Colbert, showing "Where the Cats Came From" since their early ancestors of the Eocene Period. As usual, the fine pictures accompanying these accounts enhance greatly their value and interest.

STORY OF THE WHEEL

Facing page 32 of the November number of *The Educational Forum* is a group of pictures showing "The Story of the Wheel" from primitive to recent times. Together with the frontispiece, there are eleven pictures in all, taken from the collection of historical photoprints of the The Bettmann Archive in New York City. This set will be a most useful addition to the materials of the classroom.

MOTION PICTURE PROJECT

In 1935 the American Council on Education established a Committee on Motion Pictures in Education "to consider the national and international problems of production, distribution, use, and evaluation of educational motion-pictures." The committee made a survey of the motion-picture equipment in the schools of the nation and compiled a complete catalog of educational films. A three-year program of evaluation elicited nearly 20,000 judgments of teachers and pupils about hundreds of films, together with much practical information about their use, and the observations and experiences of thousands of teachers and pupils in the classroom.

A series of practical publications is the result. In 1937 there appeared *The Motion Picture in Education: Its Status and Its Needs and Teaching with Motion Pictures: A Handbook of Administrative Practice*. Three other studies were published toward the end of 1940: *A School Uses Motion Pictures* (the Tower Hill School of Wilmington, Del.), *Films on War and American Policy*, and *Projecting Motion Pictures in the Classroom*. Scheduled to appear early in 1941 are *Selection, Use and Evaluation of Motion Pictures and Students Make Motion Pictures* (Denver high school films on health, protection, recreation, and foods). Later, it is planned to publish *Motion Pictures in a Modern Curriculum: A Report of Film Use in the Santa Barbara Schools* and *Motion Pictures in the General College: A Research Report*.

Full particulars may be secured from the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C.

STUDENT COMPETITION

"What Americanism Means to Me" and "What My Community Contributes to the Nation" are the subjects of the fourth Youth Forum Competition

which is held annually by *The American Magazine* for secondary school pupils and schools, whether public or private. The first subject is for an original article of not more than 2000 words and the second for an original painting, drawing, or photograph. The competition, which closes on March 28, 1941, requires no fees and offers hundreds of awards of various kinds. Its purpose is to arouse young people "to think fearlessly and progressively about the role of democracy in a chaotic world—to express their thoughts, feelings, and hopes for their own future and the future of America."

These competitions have attracted wide attention. Full particulars will be sent upon application to Sumner Blossom, Editor, *The American Magazine*, 250 Park Avenue, New York City.

MEETINGS

At its Atlantic City meeting, February 22-27, the American Association of School Administrators of the N.E.A. will study various aspects of those phrases of the preamble of the Constitution which are now so significant: "provide for the common defense, promote the general welfare, and secure the blessings of liberty." Among the allied groups at the conference will be the National Council for the Social Studies which will hold an all-day meeting at the Senator Hotel on February 22.

Last spring the National Capital School Visitors Council was organized as a daughter organization of the Bureau of University Travel, with a view to developing and exploring the educational possibilities of student and teacher travel to Washington. "The

School Visitors Council is pledged, without political bias, to do all within its power to emphasize the immense potentiality of the Washington visit as a vital experience in training for citizenship under the principles of American democracy." Dr. Henry M. Willard, president of the Bureau of University Travel, is the director of the Council and has associated with him on its advisory board many prominent members of the National Council for the Social Studies.

In the interest of this project special meetings as well as continuous service to visitors are planned. On March 7-11 the 1941 Institute of National Government for Secondary School Students will be held in Washington. Student delegates are invited from the country at large, and the institute will give an opportunity to see the workings of the Capital and to meet government officials. On April 7-13 an Institute on National Government for Teachers of the Social Studies will be held in the Capital to give teachers intimate contact with the machinery of the federal government. The theme of the meetings will be, "National Defense and Hemisphere Solidarity." A summer seminar is being planned on "Washington as a Laboratory for the Social Studies."

The Council furnishes an Educational Advisory Service for school visitors, and supplies, at nominal cost, suggestions for readings, and visual and other materials about Washington, for individual or classroom use. Address inquiries about any of these matters to the National Capital School Visitors Council, Evans Building, 1420 New York Avenue, Washington, D.C.

Book Reviews and Book Notes

Edited by RICHARD HEINDEL

University of Pennsylvania

The American Empire: A Study of the Outlying Territories of the United States. Edited by William H. Haas. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1940. Pp. x, 408. \$4.00.

Mr. Haas and his collaborators have undertaken to produce a volume which will acquaint American readers with the character and the problems of the outlying possessions and dependencies of the United States. The book opens with an historical chapter by Professor Isaac J. Cox, entitled "The Era of Overseas Expansion," which summarizes the story of the acquisition of our non-contiguous possessions. There follow chapters on Puerto Rico, the Virgin Islands, the Panama Canal Zone, Alaska, Hawaii, and the Commonwealth of the Philippines, and a concluding essay, "Manifest Destiny in Greater America," by

Professor Cox and Mr. Haas. The minor island possessions in the Pacific receive brief treatment in the chapter on Hawaii. Each chapter is written by a scholar with expert knowledge of the subject treated. The approach in dealing with the individual possessions is ecological, economic, and sociological, to the almost complete exclusion of government and politics. With minor exceptions, there is no account of how the possessions are governed individually, and there is no description at all of organs of control in the United States. On the other hand, there are good descriptions of soils, climate, crops, mineral resources, and exports and imports, and of the manner of living of the people of the various possessions, and useful summaries of their history before they came under the control of the United States. Relations with such

island states as Cuba, Haiti, and the Dominican Republic, which have at times been protectorates of the United States, are briefly alluded to in the final chapter, with emphasis upon our voluntary relinquishment of the role of protector.

While the volume is a useful compendium of information, some readers are likely to feel that it was written and published months too early. Interest has shifted of late from the economic and social problems of these possessions to their place in our defense system—an aspect of the subject which receives too brief treatment. Recent events, furthermore, such as the lease of British naval bases and the proceedings of the Havana Conference of last July, raise some queries about Mr. Haas's assumption that the expansion of the United States has definitely ended. These defects, if they are such, represent the risks to which any book on current topics is exposed in a dynamic world.

Since the volume is obviously intended for serious readers, the complete absence of footnotes and bibliography excites some surprise. At least an annotated list of the best books on the Philippines, Hawaii, Alaska, Puerto Rico, and the Virgin Islands would have considerably enhanced its usefulness.

JULIUS W. PRATT

University of Buffalo
Buffalo, New York

Schoolmaster of Yesterday: A Three Generation Story, 1820-1919. By Millard F. Kennedy, New York: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1940. Pp. 359. \$2.75.

Mr. Kennedy followed his father and grandfather as an Indiana rural school teacher. The book represents the combined experiences of the three generations. For most of the account, the setting is Johnson County, Indiana, not far south of the city of Indianapolis. The actual school work, texts, and equipment of the past century receive only passing comment. The little incidents, the tragedies, the "big moments" furnish the meat of the book. Like many such stories they lose flavor and color when put in print, but they furnish several hours of interesting reading none the less. This volume will doubtless have a greater interest for the older generation because younger readers would have less understanding of many allusions in the stories.

A large part of the stories are about Grandpa Kennedy and his teaching for a while in Kentucky and for a longer time in southern Indiana. A second large portion deals with Father Kennedy and his years in the rural schools in Indiana. The third and smallest portion concerns Mr. Kennedy's own years of rural teaching. He retired in 1919 and the account was written twenty years later.

Until near the end, criticisms and comments on the education systems of the past and the present are

excluded—doubtless to make the book more interesting for general reading. This reviewer would have found it difficult to mention so casually the system of state adoptions of texts or the politics in county school superintendent selection. The attendant evils are recognized by Mr. Kennedy without comment. The last chapter on modern education will be approved or disapproved according to the training and experience of the individual reader. In a way, it seems an anticlimax.

Schoolmaster of Yesterday is not intended to be a full-dressed history of rural education in Indiana. It should be taken as it is meant—a series of interesting, although rather disconnected, stories from a family who helped tide over a frontier educational program, keeping alive an interest in learning and meeting the practical needs of mid-western communities.

MARSHALL R. BEARD

Iowa State Teachers College
Cedar Falls, Iowa

Anglican Humanitarianism in Colonial New York. By Frank J. Klingberg. Philadelphia: The Church Historical Society, 1940. Pp. x, 295. \$3.00.

Here is a book dealing with the history of the Christianization and education of Indians and Negroes by the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel in eighteenth century colonial New York. Its four chapters are in fact monographs, three of which have been previously published. As Professor Klingberg says, here is a chapter in Anglican humanitarianism "not hitherto analyzed and assessed."

Its chief contribution is in the data extracted from the voluminous documents of the S.P.G. and set down seriatim. As the preface states, the study of the minutiae of the records of missionaries and of sermons imposes a severe discipline upon the investigator, "and at times equally upon the reader." It is to Professor Klingberg's credit that he has made the "accumulation of small facts necessary to establish larger outlines" (p. viii). To this reviewer it has seemed the discipline imposed upon the reader is unduly severe. He has given the "small facts" but denied the "larger outlines."

There are innumerable records of baptisms, of attendance at services, of catechists, and catechumens. There are dates and names in profusion, while innumerable quoted passages break into the text. But no general picture is vouchsafed the reader.

Nor is there appraisal of the relative significance of this Anglican humanitarianism in the developing culture of eighteenth century New York which one is led to expect. For example, the author says, in his preface, that the development of the eighteenth century humanitarian mood is not in itself sufficient to explain all the sentiment favorable to the protec-

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tion of native peoples, but that agencies, inspired in part by this mood, conspicuously the S.P.G., in turn intensified this humanitarian sentiment. Granted this, one is thus entitled to some weighing by the author of the relative importance of the humanitarian mood in general, and the S.P.G. in particular, but he is not given it.

Again, one reads that the S.P.G. is "doubly significant" because operating "in one of the most virile of modern civilizations." To the author this is "obvious." On the contrary, might it not be that the very virility of the civilization, its push for empire, the scramble for furs and lands and trade, and its hundred years' war with the French, actually restricted the significance of the S.P.G.? Here is a significant thesis which is asserted in the introduction. The book, however, does not establish it or even attempt to.

This is not to minimize the excellent spade work of the author, to which bibliography and footnotes attest. The book contains many interesting items of fact, which one can fit into his own picture. The value of the book is greatly enhanced by the inclusion of three notable S.P.G. sermons in full. The student will rejoice in the very full index.

IRVING S. KULL

Rutgers University
New Brunswick, New Jersey

Human Nature and the Social Order. By E. L. Thorndike. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. xx, 1019, \$4.00.

Every sage must desire to give mankind the testament of his wisdom and to clarify his ideas on the sorry world he has known and the means at hand for remolding it nearer to the heart's desire. One can only congratulate Professor Thorndike on his success in realizing this grandiose ambition in a work of maturity, scholarship and keen insight, a work which is singularly in tune with the thought-currents of his time. Not that a book which ranges so widely as this and quantifies and pontificates so boldly will always command agreement. Even the most friendly critic will find the author occasionally wandering into the eccentric and will tire of the endless juggling of a psychologist's statistics.

Beginning with the relatively modest aim, which recalls McDougall's of a generation ago, of presenting "certain facts and principles of psychology which students of sociology, economics, government, law . . . need to know," Thorndike ends by tackling the whole problem of the use of science to achieve human welfare, getting his facts and principles not only in the psychological laboratory, but *où il les trouve*. The modern Utopia must be a more coöperative undertaking; no one man knows enough to write it. Thorndike's collaboration is limited to quoting from other

scientists. His aim is to bring his science and theirs to bear on the twin questions, what is desirable, and what is feasible? No matter to what aspect of these questions he turns he always asks, what is the scientific evidence? If wants and welfare seem too subjective to be influenced by science, he replies with a belief in the possibility of "a natural science of values, which will progress from and improve upon the present opinions about what is good and what is bad by studying . . . consequences."

If he is not abashed at the necessity of a science of the rational good (in twenty-six items, pp. 405-406, specifications which are, he claims, more impartial and more definite, fitting human nature better, and more easily attained than any others) we need not be surprised at his confident dealing with government, capitalism and labor, eugenics, and the use of all the people to perform all the work. If there are points at which our knowledge fails, we must only devote more time to the sciences of man, and we will be able to control men. It is within our power to achieve welfare work "adapted to reality and anchored to the truth." No difficulties "of variability, modifiability, complexity, and inconvenience of access" need deter us from the scientific study of human needs and the means of satisfying them.

Dr. Thorndike dares to constitute himself "an impartial board of trustees for human welfare present and future, possessed of all present knowledge concerning nature and man" and to guess what such a board would prescribe. The prescriptions do not hesitate to part company with generally received opinions as in the case of the distribution of educational opportunity (p. 887). Rarely does the author have to admit, as in his discussion of how to attain more fraternity (which has never held our interest as much as liberty and equality), that "he has found nothing to quote . . . and has no ideas of his own worth reporting."

No panacea and no miracles! But there is the "possibility of almost complete control of his fate" by man. There are sound objectives and principles, and in the last chapter Thorndike summarizes them. They are the following: better genes; more use of rewards in training; better training by repetition; adaptation to reality rather than wishful thinking; accepting the guidance of social science; putting pressure behind the truth; seeing that the superior acquire power; the superior are the able, good and impartial; wars and preparation for war, between and within nations, must be eliminated; capital goods must be increased; even more important is the increase of mental capital; labor must be freed from drudgery, careers opened to talent, and educated and skilled labor must be made more abundant; quality is better than either quantity or equality; don't expect too much, and expect it more from the scientist's search

for facts than from the reformer's zeal for salvation.

W. REX CRAWFORD

University of Pennsylvania

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

North America: Its People and the Resources, Development and Prospects of the Continent as the Home of Man. By J. Russell Smith and M. O. Phillips. New York: Harcourt, Brace and Company, 1940. Pp. xiii, 1008. Illustrated. \$4.75.

This volume is a logical and worthy successor to the work under nearly the same title published by the senior author in 1925. (See review in *Geographical Review*, Volume XV, pp. 328-329, 1925). The same unconventional, anecdotal style is used; the same vivid, absorbing picture of man's life and its relation to the physical background is drawn. And here again the viewpoint is both scientific and humanistic; data and trends are analyzed and given their proper due, but happily no attempt is made to reduce to dry statistics the vital and complex issues in man's widely varying life patterns. From this book the reader gets a better picture of man's mode of life, his problems, and his possibilities for the future than in any other work of similar scope, in the opinion of the reviewer.

But most commendable of all is the saneness of viewpoint. Smith and Phillips have sought to trace the economic trends which have led in the last two decades to economic uncertainty and breakdown. Wisely avoiding the political aspects of our economic problems, they justly censure the prodigal waste that has marked our usage of soils, forests, and all other natural resources. There is much to justify their interpretation of our present plight and uncertainty as the end product of a frontier philosophy—a philosophy based on free, fresh land to the farmer who has improvidently exhausted the old; a rapidly expanding population and rapidly expanding markets, overstimulated eventually by the industrial boom of World War I; and finally a rapid expansion of credit, paper stocks, installment buying, financial manipulations at the expense of bankrupt European nations. The final result—the economic collapse of 1929—still rests upon us despite widespread government aid supported by a rapidly mounting national debt. Not all readers will agree with their explanation for present conditions, but all will commend their honest presentation of the diverse problems confronting our many population groups, and of their failure or success in attempts at solution. It is enlightening to compare the opening chapters of the 1925 and 1940 editions of this book. In the former, the end of an economic era was recognized, but no uncertainty regarding the future was expressed. In the latter our economic bewilderment has led to a

sober admission that we cannot as yet control production and markets, and that we do not know what the future will bring beyond a necessity for coöperation and planned economy which has never existed heretofore.

Teachers will welcome this new edition. Practically the same regional subdivisions are retained—from the Caribbean, West Indies and Mexico to the Arctic Coast—yet each section has been rewritten in the light of new information and developments, and the length of the volume has been substantially increased. It can still be said that the volume has "great ideas and a truly original style," and that every portion is as exciting to the imagination of the thinking person as any work of fiction. The critical reader will recognize some errors of fact, although these are less numerous than in the first edition, and should have been eliminated by careful editing. For a sympathetic understanding of man and his life in North America, this work is unequalled.

WILLIAM E. POWERS

Northwestern University
Evanston, Illinois

Dezba: Woman of the Desert. By Gladys A. Reichard. New York: J. J. Augustin, 1939. Pp. xxvi, 161. \$3.00.

The book under review is the second in a series of works dealing with American Indian life. If succeeding volumes maintain the high standard set by the author, the series may become an indispensable reference for all serious students of the aborigines.

The Navajo Indians are the subject of this work. The tribe has every claim to such attention. It is one of the relatively few tribes that has shown a marked increase in population. In 1868 the number of Navajos was given as 8,000; today it is more than five times as great. They have a reservation covering a considerable portion of northern Arizona, whereon they raise sheep, above all else being a pastoral people. Given to independent thinking, they have developed a culture well suited to their desert life, yet differing fundamentally from that of their Pueblo neighbors.

The life and problems of Dezba and the various members of her family are so well set forth that the reader feels them to be his own. The book is a case study with emphasis placed upon two points. First, the conflict between the old and the new in Navajo life. The chanters, whose ancient rituals are intended to cure the sick, stand at the opposite end of the pole from the hospital with its doctors and nurses. A blending of the old with the new is exemplified by Dezba herself, who trusts in the potency of ceremonial songs; who did not wish her daughter to go to school although two of her sons did go. Secondly, an excellent account of Navajo

schools is given. The arguments, pro and con, of boarding schools and day schools are submitted—with an edge of opinion in favor of the latter. The reviewer knows no more lucid statement of the specific problems faced by Indian boys and girls in connection with their education than that contained in this volume. Incidentally, there is at least one sharp rebuke to the Indian Office. John, a brilliant boy who was to get his bachelor's degree from the state university, was refused a government scholarship "because the Navajo had not voted to accept the Wheeler-Howard Act." (p. 157.) This in a democracy!

This should be a "must" book for every student of the American Indian. Written in a popular and attractive style, its merit is enhanced greatly by a series of remarkable photographs. The reviewer could wish for a bibliography, but in a work based *in toto* on actual field experience the omission is not as serious as it might otherwise have been, and in no way detracts from the intrinsic worth of the monograph.

ALBAN W. HOOPES

Spring Mill, Pennsylvania

I Remember. By Abraham Flexner. New York: Simon and Schuster, 1940. Pp. xii, 414. Illustrated. \$3.75.

This is a charming life history reminiscent of Princeton in the autumn. What will probably be remembered is the story of the amateur Flexner's part in the reform of American medical education, his work on the General Education Board (especially the surveys of state school systems), and the Institute for Advanced Study (founded 1930), which has yet to find its place in American life. Although there is revealed a fighting spirit, one always senses in the background the persuasive qualities of foundation money. But in a sense, the autobiography is a justification of American philanthropy.

Negro Youth at the Crossways. By E. Franklin Frazier. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1940. Pp. xxiii, 301. \$2.25.

The present volume, by Professor Frazier of Howard University, is a study of Negro youth of the borderline states, based on data secured by a research staff of the American Youth Commission working principally in the Negro communities located in Washington, D.C., and in Louisville, Kentucky. Against a background summary of "border states culture" drawn from existing reports and newly secured data on Negro community institutions, the interracial experiences of 268 Negro young people are analyzed. This interview material is organized in relation to the family, the neighborhood, the school, the church, and job-hunting. Following the

analysis, Dr. Frazier offers two systematic and complete case studies, one of a boy reared in middle-class circumstances and one of a girl born to a lower status, in order that the racial factor might be viewed in the context of total personality organization.

As all other publications by Frazier, the present one is characterized by its competence, readability and scholarship. The facts which emerge here are most interesting, for example, to learn that there are a million Negroes in the "border region" (District of Columbia, Delaware, Maryland, West Virginia, Kentucky, and Missouri)—about nine per cent of the entire American Negro population. A large proportion are migrants from the Old South, or their sons and grandsons. As this colored population is three-quarters urbanized, it has a slightly lower birth rate and a slightly higher death rate than Southern Negroes. Home ownership and marital status parallel those in the Old South, but the border states seem to have a smaller proportion of broken families. Other highly challenging facts will be rewarded to careful readers—and shock some ("Paradoxical as it may seem, the Negro church, an institution which is the product of Negro leadership and coöperation, does little to give Negroes a sense of personal worth and dignity in a world where everything tends to disparage the Negro"—p. 266). Whatever might be the case, Frazier's publication is worth its weight in gold.

JOSEPH S. ROUCEK

Hofstra College
Hempstead, Long Island

Economic Problems of To-day. By W. Arthur Lewis.
London: Longmans, Green and Company, Ltd.
1940. Pp. xii, 179. \$1.25.

In this commentary on modern economic problems, the author-lecturer Arthur Lewis, of University of London, presents in the language of the public "some knowledge of the economic problems which loom so large in contemporary discussion." Part I outlines for the reader the problems of resources, property, international economy, and unemployment. Part II discusses the methods by which Russia, Germany, France, and the United States have attempted to reach solutions. Into this part there is written a comparison of what Britain has done to maintain economic stability.

The book does not purport to be an exhaustive study. It does cite the high points in shaping the economic life under communism, national socialism, "Front Populaire," and democracy. Each chapter is followed with a few books or articles for additional study. At the end of the book are questions for each chapter. The reviewer felt, as he was reading this book, that he was listening to the lecture in simple, understandable language; that the author was lending

his enthusiasm to the thesis he was trying to present. The book should have a wide circulation in the secondary schools and the public at large.

ELMER A. LISSFELT

Senior High School
Abington, Pennsylvania

TEXTBOOKS AND OTHER TEACHING AIDS

Men, Groups, and the Community: A Survey in the Social Sciences. By Thomas H. Robinson and Others. New York: Harper and Brothers, 1940. Pp. xix, 964. \$3.50.

The coming of survey courses has led to the appearance of several texts which treat the social sciences as a unit. This is an excellent book of the type. The authors have developed this book from ten years' experience with their social science survey course at Colgate University. Unlike similar coöperative works, it reads as evenly as if written by one man.

Professor Robinson organizes his book into five parts. The first, "Perspective," explores the significance of specialization, group ways, communication, and propaganda. Part Two discusses "Some Community Features," such as private enterprise, the family, education, political parties, and administration. Part Three, "The Scene Changes," comprises a single suggestive chapter entitled "Invention, Diffusion, and Lag." Part Four, "Some Problem Situations," discusses specific problems involving consumers, workers, the family, elections, and education. In effect this section applies to these questions the data and principles developed in Part Two. Finally, Part Five, "That Problems May Be Solved," examines in turn the organization of workers and of consumers, the growing sphere of government, and social planning.

Working as so many of us are in the traditional, disjointed curriculum, the reviewer appreciates this well-written book. For it focusses on the problems the social sciences exist to solve rather than on the separate sciences themselves. Certainly a great deal of economics, sociology, and political science is used; and history is very properly employed to develop the genetic aspects of problems discussed. Fortunately in integrating these different social sciences Professor Robinson avoided the patch-work effect so common in coöperative works. Thirty charts, a hundred illustrations, and a clear style enriched by lively quotations enhance its teaching qualities. Sections of the book evoke student enthusiasm when used experimentally in the reviewer's classes. As a teacher who aspires to be something of a realist, the reviewer welcomes its candid and sympathetic handling of frequently tabooed issues. Thus, its analysis of propaganda identifies by name many of America's sacred cows. Revealing quotations from George Washington Plunkett and other worthies illustrate our political

morality. If the family is under discussion, the authors show no reticence in discussing the germane topics of prostitution and the decline of religious orthodoxy. They explain how large businesses suppress inventions. They cite actual instances of hamstringing the schools as illustrative of cultural lag.

There are some short-comings. Some chapters end flatly; others have overlong quotations; thus Chapter XXXIII reprints a none-too-readable article from *Foreign Affairs*. Some charts are confusing; at least one is childish. The last two chapters are poorly organized. Most serious are the omissions. International relations, the distinction between military and police action, the relation between laymen and experts—these for example are passed over with the hopeful yet hardly convincing plea that this text will enable students to tackle such problems. These defects should not condemn an otherwise excellent book which should become a widely used text.

GARLAND DOWNUM

Mercer University
Macon, Georgia

Problems of American Democracy. By Horace Kidger. Boston: Ginn and Company, 1940. Pp. xi, 540. Illustrated. \$1.68.

At times the printing presses grind slowly, but in these turbulent days, their rate is accelerated and a long procession of books about democracy are now appearing. It may be definitely stated that this book is far above the general level of much of the available literature upon the subject that is now bombarding the poor social studies teacher.

The author knows what to do, how to do it—and miracle of miracles—he actually does it. We may accept as a basic principle that an enlightened citizenry is of first importance in our American life, but it does bother many of us to find out why it takes so long to enlighten said citizenry. The competing philosophies of life have certainly managed to cover a lot of space and distance in a relatively short period of time.

Here is a book that is well planned and offers opportunity for discussion, investigation, and consultation. And it makes pertinent factual information interesting. The many varied illustrations bear a relation to the text and are not merely put in the book for window dressing.

The author clearly recognizes that today there are no problems of an economic or social nature which do not have implications for government and which are not affected in some way or other by governmental regulations. Likewise he recognizes that economic problems are of social significance and that social conditions have an economic base.

If we want our students in the social studies to think clearly it would seem both essential and logi-

cal that the first important problem to be considered in a book about Democracy is how to think. Chapter I is entitled "Clear Thinking" and Chapter II is called "Clear Thinking Applied to Newspapers." Even if you never use this book as a test, it is worth reading these two chapters to see what can be done when a textbook writer is realistic and faces the problems that confront our students, instead of setting up intellectual straw men for the purpose of pedantic demolition.

The topics of Consumer Economics, the Coöperative Movement, Socialization of Medicine, the Labor Situation, Technological Trends, Social Security, Youth, and Democracy are well handled in addition to other vital topics.

Here is the book about which you have dreamed translated into reality.

HAROLD GLUCK

Walton High School
Bronx, New York

Yukon Holiday. By Felice Fieldhouse. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. 230. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Chuck Martinez. By Priscilla Holton. Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. 312. Illustrated. \$2.00.

River Empire. By Helen C. Fernald and Edwin M. Slocombe. Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. 216. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Black Fire. By Covelle Newcomb. Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. 275. Illustrated. \$2.50.

The first three of these new books deal with the adventures of young people. The fourth is a dramatic biography of Henri Christophe.

Arctic adventure with mild suspense is the keynote of *Yukon Holiday*. Frances Ramsay, a San Francisco girl, elects to spend the winter at Fort Windsor as teacher. The events which make Northern life both interesting and thrilling are told in a simple style, with a sense of humor and with appealing characterizations.

Chuck Martinez' adventures in Old Mexico are set against a vivid background of Mexican life and customs. The boy returns to the country of his birth after an American schooling, and is plunged into adventure when his father is reported the captive of a notorious bandit. The solution is feeble, but it will not diminish the book's appeal.

When Pierre Dupré's father is murdered by a mysterious agent, the boy, in quest of revenge, runs into a plot to form a vast *River Empire*. Pierre is avenged when he effects the capture of the leader of the plot. The exciting story is told against a background of life on the American waterways. Touching on the story of Colonel Aaron Burr, there is

enough historical background to make it of educational value.

Black Fire is a sensitive, psychological study of Henri Christophe, the great Negro leader who dedicated his life to the independence of his country and his people. The dramatic rise and fall of the Emperor is told against a rich descriptive background, and against a clear historical setting, which includes the other great figures of Haiti's history. Except for the somewhat fictionalized account of Christophe's childhood, the book is a creative presentation of authentic material, told with a precise style and a vigor which make it informative and thrilling reading. Avery Johnson's illustrations are of the same artistic quality as the book.

MARJORIE L. PFAELZER

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

Men of Power. By Albert Carr. New York: The Viking Press, 1940. Pp. v, 272. \$2.50.

It's really so simple, you wonder why some one hasn't done it before. Just take some of the world's leading dictators—Richelieu, Cromwell, Frederick, Napoleon, Bolívar, Bismarck, Mussolini, Stalin, and Hitler—and weave a series of pleasant tales built upon the concept of power. All good boys and girls will like this book, and no doubt that you too will enjoy the easy manner in which it is written. While you have an analysis of what a dictator does, you can also find out the mistakes a dictator makes. While this book will probably enjoy wide sales in our democratic society and the evils of dictatorship may be studied, youthful, potential dictators may even learn what errors to avoid. If you are going to use this book as supplementary reading in your social studies classes, it would be advisable to do some collateral reading about the characters mentioned in the book. In the name of propaganda for democracy you can accept this book, but in the name of historical accuracy and subjective interpretation, there is much in it with which to disagree. But let us not quibble—read it.

HAROLD GLUCK

Walton High School
Bronx, New York

Quest of the Cavaliers: De Soto and the Spanish Explorers. By Faith Yingling Knoop. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. vi, 202. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Miss Knoop has centered her story upon the career of De Soto, and has created an informative canvas of the discovery and development of the Americas, which includes Balboa, Cortes, Pizarro, and several others. The book's material is accurate but it is poorly organized and therefore may prove confusing to

younger readers. There are appealing illustrations at the head of each chapter but the book suffers from the absence of maps. There are too few moments of excitement and adventure, and too few of the incidental narratives which make straight history palatable to younger readers.

MARJORIE L. PFAELZER

Philadelphia, Pennsylvania

PERTINENT PAMPHLETS

Uncle Sam's Pacific Islets. By David N. Leff. Stanford University, California; Stanford University Press, 1940. Pp. x, 71. Illustrated. \$1.00.

A useful chapter in American overseas expansion, discussing islands which are increasingly important in our defense and commercial program.

Vital American Beliefs. By Sumner Harwood. Cambridge, Massachusetts; Cambridge Analytical Services, 1940. Pp. 44. 25 cents.

Includes two chapters on effective government and controlled capitalism.

Democratic Education; Suggestions for Education and National Defense. By Progressive Education Association. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Public Affairs, 1940. Pp. 24. 25 cents.

A suggestive program offered as a beginning.

Look At Latin America. By Joan Raushenbush and Graphic Associates. Headline Books, No. 27, 1940. The Foreign Policy Association, 22 E. 38 Street, New York City. Pp. 64. Illustrated. 25 cents.

A description of many phases of Latin America—racial, geographical, educational, health—but with most of the space devoted to the economic. Twenty-five pages of maps and charts accompanied, page by page, by an explanatory text. The whole is concluded by a summary and a bibliography. Large use is made of governmental and Pan-American Union studies, statistics, and other data. Very useful for the classroom.

The Civilian Conservation Corps. The American Youth Commission, 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D.C. 1940. Pp. 24. (Gratis)

The statement of the findings and recommendations of the commission after a four-year survey of the work of the corps. Of interest and value to all citizens.

Guam: Population. 1940 census report of the Bureau of the Census, United States Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C. Pp. 18.

Fifteen tables showing the composition, characteristics, schooling, and home tenure of the people of Guam.

CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

Washington and the Revolution; A Reappraisal. By Bernhard Knollenberg. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Pp. xvi, 269. \$3.00.

A critical, scholarly examination of some pet ideas, with special attention devoted to Gates, the Conway Cabal, Lafayette, and the Continental Congress.

John and William Bartram: Botanists and Explorers. By Ernest Earnest. Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania Press, 1940. Pp. vi, 187. \$2.00.

Entertaining, significant biographies of a famous father and son as representatives of their times, both with European reputations.

Thomas Riley Marshall: Hoosier Statesman. By Charles M. Thomas. Oxford, Ohio: Mississippi Valley Press, 1939. Pp. 296. \$3.00.

Story of an Indiana attorney who emerged as governor and leader of Progressive movement. Several chapters on his career as Vice President. Interesting.

William Slater: Western Torchbearer. By Philip D. Jordan. Oxford, Ohio: Mississippi Valley Press, 1939. Pp. x, 273. \$3.00.

Vol. I in Men of America Series. A biography illustrating life and religion on the Trans-Mississippi frontier. Careful research on some unused material.

And Still the Waters Run. By Angie Debo. Princeton, Princeton University Press, 1940. Pp. x, 417. \$4.00.

Eloquent, frank story of the independent Indian republics known as the Five Civilized Tribes. Indirectly, a timely study for Americans now interested about their rich minorities.

Diego de Vargas and the Reconquest of New Mexico. By Jessie B. Bailey. Albuquerque, New Mexico: University of New Mexico Press, 1940. Pp. 290.

Account of an adventurous governor who recaptured New Mexico from the rebellious Indians. Based on his writings and other official communications.

The Catholic Church in Indiana, 1789-1834. By Thomas T. McAvoy. New York: Columbia University Press, 1940. Pp. 226. \$2.25.

Study based on new material of a neglected period in Catholic history, with attention to contribution of French pioneers to later Catholicism.

The Swiss in the United States. Edited by John P. von Gruening. Madison, Wisconsin: Swiss-American Historical Society, 1940. Pp. 153. Illustrated.

Useful survey of Swiss migration and scattered activities.

The Organization of Labor in Philadelphia, 1850-1870. By Edgar B. Cale. Philadelphia: Privately printed, 1940. Pp. vi, 126.

Material relevant to the labor press and to national organizations whose roots can be traced to Philadelphia locals has been included. Emphasis on transitory nature of many of the unions. Useful addition to economic history.

Teaching of History in Elementary and Secondary Schools with Application to Allied Studies. By Henry Johnson. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1940. Revised Edition. Pp. xv, 467. \$3.00.

Revision of text published twenty-five years ago, with more class exercises.

Professional Education for Experienced Teachers; The Program of the Summer Workshop. By Kenneth L. Heaton, W. G. Camp, and P. B. Diederich. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940. Pp. x, 142. \$1.25.

Reviews history of the workshop movement, describes in detail the basic principles and methods employed, and raises certain questions regarding its possible significance. Of interest to all those concerned with the improvement of instruction at any level.

Guidepost for Rural Youth. By E. L. Kirkpatrick. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1940. Pp. vii, 167. \$1.00.

A constructive program for meeting the handicaps faced by rural children. Three out of every five farm boys reaching working age each year have no jobs on the farm. Prepared for American Youth Commission. Important.

Pan-America. By Carleton Beals. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940. Pp. xiv, 545. \$3.00.

A program for the Western hemisphere by a famous free lance journalist. Discusses the battle for strategic raw materials and what action the United States must take.

America's Last Chance. By Albert Carr. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1940. Pp. 328. Illustrated. \$2.75.

Vital, militant, specific answer to sundry Hitlers.

Defense is not enough. Argues that the United States can, for the last time, take up world leadership.

I Believe in America: An American Manifesto. By Ray W. Sherman. New York: Oskar Piest, 1940. Pp. 180. \$1.50.

A lecture book to give Americans faith.

Freedom: American Style. By Alan F. Griffin. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1940. Pp. vi, 184. Illustrated. 80 cents.

A chatty book for young Americans during a national emergency. Designed for supplemental reading.

Heaven on Earth: A Planned Mormon Society. By William J. McNiff. Oxford, Ohio: Mississippi Valley Press, 1940. Pp. viii, 262. \$3.00.

Valuable contribution to Mormon politics and sociology.

The Immigrant in American History. By Marcus L. Hansen. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1940. Pp. xi, 229. \$2.50.

Nine excellent essays summarizing Professor Hansen's larger views on immigration.

The United States, Great Britain and British North America. By A. L. Burt. New Haven: Yale University Press, 1940. Pp. xv, 448. Illustrated. \$3.25.

From 1775 to 1820. New material with new interpretations, especially on Jay's Treaty and the War of 1812. Comprehensive.

Fifty Years of War and Diplomacy in the Balkans. By Count Carlo Sforza. New York: Columbia University Press, 1940. Pp. x, 195. \$2.75.

About Nikola Pasnich and the Union of the Yugoslavs. Several chapters on Serbia from 1848 to about 1900. Interesting history by the former Italian Minister for Foreign Affairs.

The Making of the Modern Mind. By John H. Randall, Jr. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1940. Revised Edition. Pp. xiii, 696. \$3.60.

A well-known survey of the intellectual background of the present age. Revision pertains mostly to the past hundred years.

An Introduction to Commercial Geography. By L. Dudley Stamp. New York: Longmans, Green and Company, 1940. Pp. vii, 247. Illustrated. \$1.20.

Elementary text which incidentally shows no modern civilization can exist in fullest sense without international trade.

The Social Relations of Science. By J. G. Crowther. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1941. Pp. xxxii, 665. \$3.50.

A sustained analysis of the origin of science. Suggestive and challenging review of influence of science to the present. Some interesting forecasts by this Englishman on the staff of the *Manchester Guardian*.

Let's Fly. By Frances N. Ahl. Boston, Mass.: Christopher Publishing House, 1940. Pp. 237. Illustrated. \$2.00.

Air travel book covering the Pacific area. Satisfactory as collateral reading.

Locomotives on Parade. By Edward Hungerford. New York: Thomas Y. Crowell Company, 1940. Pp. xiii, 236. Illustrated. \$2.50.

A charming account of American locomotives by the man responsible for the famous pageant at the New York World's Fair. From the *Stourbridge Lion* to streamliners. Highly recommended.

Ten Communities. By Paul R. Hanna, I. J. Quillen, and G. L. Potter. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1940. Pp. 512. Illustrated. \$1.16.

A "total," organic approach for elementary schools. Well written and carefully organized to appeal to all the disciplines within the social studies.

Units of Work and Centers of Interest in the Organization of the Elementary School Curriculum. By Sadie Goggans. New York: Teachers College, 1940. Pp. vi, 140. \$1.60.

Effort to clarify points at issue between the curriculum focused upon organized subject matter and that primarily concerned with aspects of child living. Chapters on education for improvement of society and reorientation of education within the cultural pattern.

The Search for Financial Security. By Robert B. Warren. New York: Columbia University Press, 1940. Pp. vi, 91. \$1.25.

Convenient, authoritative analysis of our money and banking system. Professor Warren, although not pessimistic, does not encourage the belief that our system will prove adequate for the next economic plague.

Consumer Representation in the New Deal. By Persia Campbell. New York: Columbia University Press, 1940. Pp. 298. \$3.25.

Study of agencies established to relate consumer interests to industrial and agricultural policy and practice and of opinion hammered out by these consumer agencies often spoken of as American solution of problems leading to fascism elsewhere.